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THE PROGRESS AND PROBLEMS OF
TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE
EAST CENTRAL STATE OF NIGERIA
WITH AN INTRODUCTORY ACCOUNT OF THE
GENERAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN THE AREA

by



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ABSTRACT

The East Central State is one of the twelve States created in Nigeria in 1967. The purpose of this study is to investigate the progress and problems of teacher education in the State up to the year 1973, and to suggest ways by which the problems could be overcome.

In the State, education has gone through different stages. Traditional education was largely informal. The Missionaries introduced formal education as well as the first institutions for the training of teachers. Later the Colonial Government became interested in education. It made regulations affecting teacher education, paid grants-in-aid to mission institutions, and established training colleges of its own.

Initially, education was centralized. The Department of Education in Lagos made regulations affecting the training of teachers throughout the country. After the division of the country into four administrative regions, the Eastern Nigeria Government assumed the responsibility for education and the training of teachers in its territory which included the present study area. The East Central State Government inherited those responsibilities when it came into being, although this was not evidently so until the end of the Nigerian Civil War in 1970. The State then took up the duty to train teachers for its schools, but had first to nationalize the institutions involved in the

training of teachers with the objective of promoting rapid rehabilitation.

Central to the problems of teacher education in the study area has been the lack of clear and adequate definition of goals. As a result, teacher education has continued to be hampered by the undesirable aspects of its traditions. These lie primarily in the weaknesses of the institutional structure as well as in the tendency of the curricula to avoid responding to changed circumstances.

There is the need to re-think the number, size, siting, and the quality of teacher education institutions in the State and to re-plan the curricula, methods of certification and administration of the institutions to reflect the needs of the society and the nation. The post-war period offers an opportunity for reconstruction along these lines, and suggestions and recommendations have been made with this end in view.

The study is based on documentary evidence, official and unofficial, and it is hoped that its conclusions have implications for the other States of the Federation as well.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The present chapter discusses the objectives, the significance, and the limitations of the study, as well as the methods by which the data were collected and analyzed. It includes also an account of the population and the economy of the study area, both of which factors are considered necessary to the understanding of the problems discussed in the text.

1. The Purpose and the Design of the Study

The Objectives of the Study

The East Central State of Nigeria is one of the twelve States into which the Federation of Nigeria is divided. (Fig. 1). The State runs a school system which includes the training of teachers. The main objective of the research is to provide a descriptive account of the progress and problems of teacher education in the State from its humble beginnings to the year 1973, and to consider against this historical background, ideas and policies which may lead to a better teacher training programme in the State.

In order to achieve the objective of the research, the following factors have been investigated:

1. The historical, social, and economic background of the State. This area of study is considered necessary in order to place the educational system and the events relating to teacher education in the proper perspective.

2. The developments of teacher education in the study area during the period covered by the research. Three major periods are recognized and marked out for investigation.

- (a) The period of the pupil-teacher system.
This lasted to the early nineteen-forties and was followed by:
- (b) The period of maximum expansion of teacher training institutions, and last,
- (c) The period of contraction and higher education for teachers.

3. The problems that beset teacher education under the following headings:

- (a) The physical plant.
- (b) The types of teachers' colleges.
- (c) The students.
- (d) The staffing.
- (e) The curriculum.
- (f) Certification.
- (g) In-service training.

(h) Co-ordination

4. The problems identified in the areas named above, lead to recommendations which, it is hoped, will make for an improved system of teacher education in the State.

The Significance of the Study

The study is considered significant for three main reasons. In the first place, the available evidence indicates that to date very little work has been done by way of a systematic description and analysis of the progress and the problems of teacher education in the State. The East Central State, in line with the rest of the country, is on the verge of a rapid expansion of its school system with the introduction of universal primary education in 1976. The key to a successful implementation of such a programme is the provision of teachers of the right quality and adequate quantity. As Professor B. O. Ukeje writes,

The central importance of the teacher and particularly his training in the whole educational system can hardly be over-emphasized. On him ultimately depends the realization of the aims of education. For it is he, in the final analysis, who determines the actual learning experiences that will go into the classroom. In fact, in the process of social reconstruction or the building of a new nation, teachers are, as it were, the builders of builders.¹

¹Ukeje, B. O. Education for Social Reconstruction, Lagos, Macmillan & Co., Nigeria, Ltd., 1966, p. 174.

It is in the recognition of the central importance of teacher education in the educational system of the State that this study was undertaken.

Second, as Espie has observed:

Teacher training problems have tended to be given less sustained attention than those of secondary education and, in a number of instances, have attracted less financial support from governments or voluntary agencies.²

A study of this nature may throw some light on some of the factors which, in the past, have led to the apparent inadequate appreciation of the role of teacher education in the school system and the need to make it the pivot of educational reconstruction in the future. Consequently, the results of the study may be valuable in assisting in the clarification and reconceptualization of the whole area of teacher education in the State. Furthermore, this aspect of the study may be of interest to other States of the Federation, as well as to other developing nations, who have to contend with similar problems.

Finally, it is hoped that the study will be of some use to educational administrators in the State, to the Principals of the Grade Two Teachers' Colleges and to the staff of the education departments of the institutions of higher learning that train teachers for the schools. On

² Solaru T. and Espie Ian, Teacher Training in Nigeria, Ibadan, University Press, 1964, p.89

their appreciation of the problems involved in their work will depend, more than on anything else, the success of any modernization programme undertaken by the government with respect to its school system.

In making the recommendations, the following basic facts of the educational system were borne in mind:

1. Education is run on a federal basis. This started to be the practice when the country was divided into three Regions for ease of administration. The component Regions, as they were then known, had their Ministries of Education. The Ministries were responsible for primary and secondary education, while the Federal Government was responsible for higher education, international co-operation in education, external aid for education and other matters involving the overall interest of Nigeria.³ This arrangement continued when the Regions were replaced by the States. It follows that both the Central Government and the State Governments have a stake in the education of teachers for the schools of the country.

2. Although the component parts of the country ran their own teacher training institutions, certification procedures have been generally the same, and a teacher trained in one State of the Federation is employable in other States without further qualification requirements.

³Federal Ministry of Education, Lagos, Report on Educational Progress in Nigeria, 1965-66, p. 1.

Collection and Analysis of Data

The data for the study have been collected from a number of sources in Nigeria between May and August, 1974.

The sources include:

- (a) The Ministry of Education, East Central State of Nigeria.
- (b) The University of Nigeria, Nsukka.
- (c) The Alvan Ikoku College of Education, Owerri.
- (d) The Federal Ministry of Education, Lagos.
- (e) The Government Printer, Lagos.
- (f) The UNESCO Office, Lagos.
- (g) Grade Two Training Colleges in East Central State.
- (h) The Department of Statistics, Enugu.
- (i) Office of the Nigerian Union of Teachers, Owerri.
- (j) The State School Board, Enugu.

Effort has been made to secure primary sources as basic tools for the interpretation of the historical events relating to teacher education in the State. The following kinds of primary sources have been obtained and used in the investigation:

- (a) Reports of study groups, committees, commissions or individuals sponsored or requested by the State or Federal Government.

- (b) Official publications in public or limited circulation, mimeographed or printed.
- (c) Official study papers or reports of non-government groups.
- (d) Unofficial publications in public or limited circulation.
- (e) Statutes and official reports of the Federal Government of Nigeria, and of the East Central State Government.
- (f) Articles from the following newspapers:
 - (i) The Daily Times
 - (ii) The Nigerian Outlook
 - (iii) The Leader
 - (iv) The Renaissance
- (g) Private interviews.
- (h) Personal correspondence.

Secondary sources, however, have not been neglected, and for the earlier periods, they form the main source of information. Babs Fafunwa's book, History of Education in Nigeria, (1973); Teacher Training in Nigeria by Solaru and Espie (1964); and the book by C. G. Wise, A History of Education in British West Africa (1956), are among the secondary sources which were found to have some relevance to the topic investigated. In addition, the periodicals in the Education and the Rutherford Libraries of the University of Alberta proved to be valuable source of material

related to new developments in teacher education.

Altogether, twelve training colleges were visited during the investigation. The colleges have been so selected so as to represent each of the ten educational zones into which the State is divided (Fig. 7). Where there is more than one training college in a zone, the choice of the college to visit has been by random selection. The Alvan Ikoku College of Education, Owerri, and the Rural Education Centre, Umudike, have been included because they are the only training colleges of their type in the State and the Teacher Training College, Nsukka is the only one in the educational zone.

Limitations of the Study

The study is restricted to an examination of the major trends in the development of teacher education and the problems associated with such development in the East Central State of Nigeria. Where other States of the Federation are mentioned, the intention is to highlight by comparison or contrast the specific conditions

obtaining in the East Central State. Although some students from the State do attend university departments of education and teacher training colleges in other parts of the Federation, they are not included in this study. The number, quality, and educational impact of teachers trained elsewhere could form the topic of a separate investigation. Specifically, the study is limited to the progress and problems of:

- (a) The Grade Two teachers' colleges, and colleges below this grade which existed in the past but were later abolished;
- (b) The Advanced Teacher Training College, Owerri (A.T.T.C.) The name was later changed to The Alvan Ikoku College of Education. For most of the period studied, it was, however, known by its former name;
- (c) The Rural Education Centre, Umudike, and
- (d) The University of Nigeria Faculty of Education.

The time available for visits to the colleges was short. By the middle of May, the colleges had done with normal classroom teaching and had started their practical teaching and final examinations. Since the investigator arrived back in the State at the end of April, there were barely two weeks left for visits to schools. In each of three such visits, the Principal was away, and the Deputy

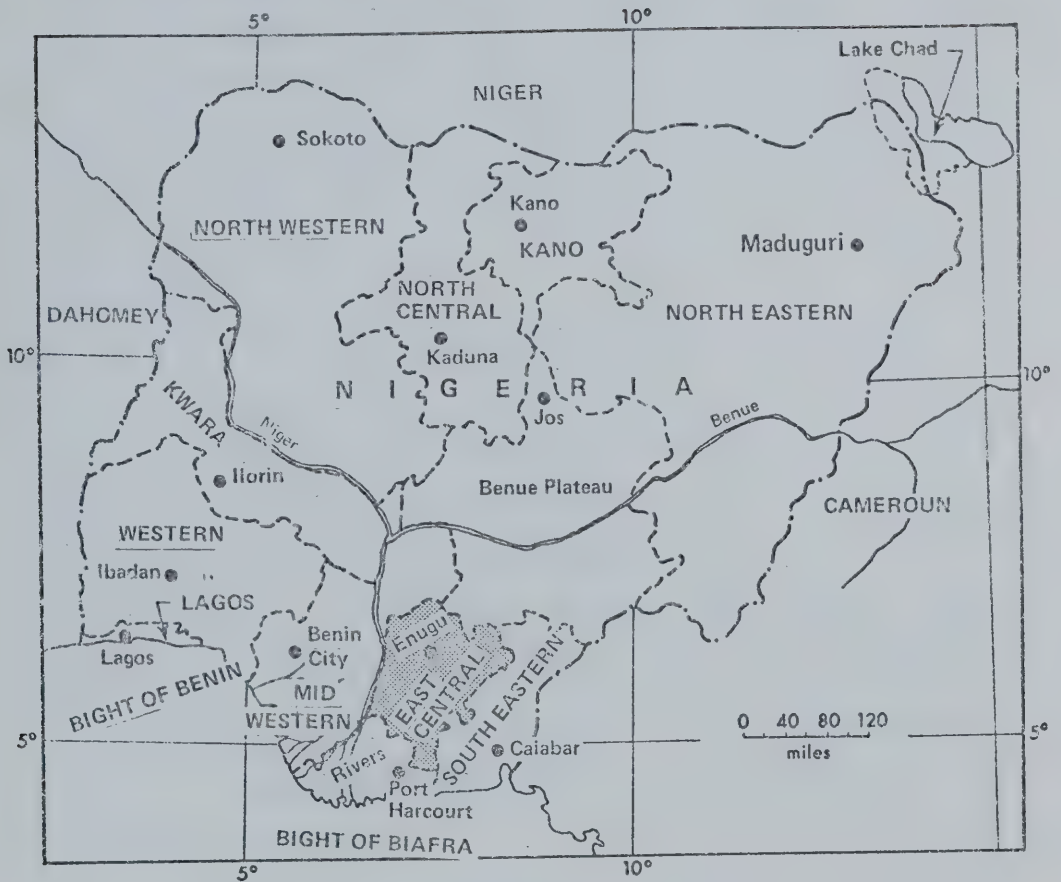
had not much information to give on such matters as discipline and boarding of students. In one instance (in the attempt to reach Egbema Teachers' College) the car broke down on the road and the journey had to be abandoned.

In vain did one look for individual college records prior to the Civil War. In all cases, the reply got was that they were lost. Inspectors' reports of the pre-war years could have been of great help in the investigation of developments in college curricula.

Finally, the limitations of the study lie also in its topical and chronological scope. Because the study seeks to answer particular questions raised regarding the historical development of a system of training colleges in one State of the Federation of Nigeria, any conclusions of the study are necessarily limited to the specific concerns and time period to which the questions relate.

The methodology used in the investigation is essentially documentary analysis with some supporting information from interviews. In view of the fact that data were treated chronologically, and in part by specific events, the investigation could perhaps best be termed an historical study.

NIGERIA POLITICAL, 1973



The Twelve States of Nigeria, Created May 27, 1967.

Fig. 1

2. The Study Area

The basic facts of population and economy affect educational planning in all its facets. They help to determine the official educational goals, and the number, type, and academic level of teachers required to implement the goals. Furthermore, the recommendations made in later chapters regarding the training of teachers are ultimately based on those factors.

The Population

The East Central State of Nigeria is densely populated. It contains roughly eight million people. The 1963 Nigeria Census showed that it had a population of 7.23 million people in an area of 8,476 square miles. It is the third largest by population of the newly-created States. The Western and the North Eastern States which are first and second, had a population of 9.49 and 7.79 million respectively in 1963. Table I shows the projected population figures for each State of the Federation in 1973.

The East Central State has the highest population density in Nigeria. Its 711 people per square mile is more than twice that of Kano State which is the second most densely populated State of Nigeria. In fact, some divisions of the State have densities of over 1,000 people per square mile, as is shown in Table II.

TABLE I

NIGERIA:

The States, Population and

Population Density, 1973

(Source: Nigeria Year Book, 1973 p. 35)

State	Population	Area Square Mile	Persons Per Square Mile
Benue Plateau	4,009,408	41,844	95
East Central*	7,469,000	8,746	711
Kano	5,774,842	16,630	347
Kwara	2,406,265	28,672	82
Lagos	1,433,567	5,747	251
Mid-Western	2,535,839	15,344	168
North Central	4,098,305	26,949	158
North Eastern	7,815,443	120,854	78
North Western	5,733,296	65,004	88
Rivers	1,544,314	7,008	233
South Eastern	4,626,317	13,730	263
Western	9,487,526	29,100	239

* Area investigated.

TABLE II

The East Central State of Nigeria:
 The Divisions, Area, Population and
 Population Density as in 1963
 (Source: The Nigeria Census 1963)

Division	Area Square Miles	Population	Persons Per Square Mile
Aba	960	541,968	565
Abakaliki	1,839	627,589	341
Afikpo	,725	376,139	519
Awgu	424	212,805	502
Awka	671	696,396	1,035
Bende	829	427,867	516
Nsukka	1,314	689,353	525
Okigwi	587	743,832	1,267
Onitsha	1,150	797,368	693
Orlu	408	665,665	1,632
Owerri	1,085	901,016	830
Udi	1,318	549,543	417

The East Central State has the greatest population density in Nigeria and the third largest total population. These factors are to some extent reflected in enrolments in the primary and secondary schools and in teacher training colleges (Table III and Table XIV).

TABLE III

Enrolment in Primary ^(a) and Secondary
Grammar ^(b) Schools in Nigeria, 1970

(Sources) ^(a) Federal Ministry of Education,
Lagos. Statistics of Education in Nigeria
1971

(b) UNESCO, Paris, Education in Nigeria
Vol. II, Annex 29, Paris, 1971

State	Primary School ^(a)	Secondary Grade ^(b)
	Enrolment (000s)	Enrolment (000s)
Benue Plateau	179.3	25.9
East Central *	978.8	70.5
Kano	81.4	2.9
Kwara	136.7	9.6
Lagos	240.7	13.8
Mid Western	419.0	28.6
North Central	134.0	4.5
North Eastern	144.3	5.6
North Western	92.0	4.1
Rivers	186.4	6.9
South Eastern	431.6	9.0
Western	869.7	58.3

The Economy

The East Central State is basically a land of peasant farmers. The land tenure system is patterned on the traditional social system. Land is seen by the people as communal property. The trustees of the people are the eldest living male members of a group. By custom, they have the sole right to allocate and divide land among all those under them. The division of the land after the death of the head of a family results in the fragmentation of the land. Generally, the eldest son gets a bigger share than the younger ones, but the girls get no share at all.

The communal system of land ownership poses a great obstacle to the economic development of land. The issue is further complicated because quite often myth, magic, and religion are mixed with land tenure.⁴ These mystical ideas often dictate when, how, and by whom land should be used. There is also the conception that no male member of a group should be without land. Land, as it were, knits together the social and spiritual identity among the members of a family lineage and distinguishes them from others in the society.

There is need for a much more rational use of land resources if agricultural production is to increase. It is also very desirable that teachers should be well grounded in elementary science so that sound teaching of the subject will ultimately result in improved agricultural practices.

⁴cf. Enyinnaya, Christian, "Problems of Our Land Tenure System," The Renaissance, May, 18, 1974.

In the distant past, the constant division and sub-division of the land tended to equalize economic opportunity among the villagers, and thus the egalitarian society was kept in a sort of stable equilibrium. But the present money economy and higher standards of living render the system anachronistic. It now hinders economic development in various ways:

(a) Large-scale improvement by a farmer of his land is made almost impossible when he has five or six small plots in any one year situated several miles apart.

(b) It takes a farmer considerable time to move from one plot to another. Hence, he cannot care for his farm as he should.

(c) The communal ownership of land often leads to land disputes, and decisions as to right of occupance are rendered difficult since, under customary land tenure, there is no land registration.

This land tenure system and the low productivity have rendered the work of extension workers and agricultural teachers very difficult. It has made school children look down upon farming as an occupation to be followed after their education. All the same, the Government is encouraging village farmers to form co-operatives, and is also running farm settlements of its own. There is therefore the need for training specialist people who will work among the farmers and propagate modern farming techniques.

The village farming system is based on the cultivation of the "compound land" and the "outfield." The compound land or garden land surrounds the homestead. It is a small piece of land, usually about a quarter of an acre or less. It is regularly cultivated and manured with animal dungs and sweepings from the compound. On it is grown such vegetables as okro, fluted pumpkin, beans, cocoyams, and maize. Bananas, plantains, coconuts, and oil palm may also be found growing on the garden land. The fallow period is usually one year.

The outfield has a longer fallow period, ranging from three to seven years, depending upon the availability of land. As a result of population pressure, the fallow period is decreasing everywhere, and in Orlu, eastern Owerri, and southern Okigwi divisions, the outfield hardly exists. The problem of paucity of farm land is more acute in the East Central State than in the adjacent Rivers and South Eastern States. Table IV which covers the three States, shows that farming is almost entirely of the subsistence type. Thus, 87.6 per cent of the farmers cultivated less than 2.5 acres each in 1963. The subsistence farming system in this respect resembles that of the fellahin of the Nile Delta or of the peasants of the Indo-Gangetic Plain.

TABLE IV

Percentage Distribution of Number of Farmers
and Area Farmed, by Farm Size in 1963

(Source): Federal Government of Nigeria.
Economic Indicators Vol. 2,
No. 11, Lagos.

Federal Office of Statistics. November 1966

Size of Farm in Acres, i.e. Total Land Area Actually Under Cultivation	Percentage of Total Farmers	Percentage of Total Area Farmed
Under 0.25	21.4	2.4
0.25 - 0.50	20.9	6.1
0.50 - 1.00	20.8	12.0
1.00 - 2.50	24.5	31.7
2.50 - 5.00	8.1	21.9
5.00 - 10.00	3.8	20.5
10.00 and Over	0.5	5.4
TOTAL	100	100
Under 2.50	87.6	52.2

The outfield, where it exists, is generally not manured, hence the longer fallow period. The crops planted are principally yams, cassava, maize, and groundnuts, but in the outfield, the oil palm grows profusely wild, giving the vegetation of most of East Central State the name "Oil Palm Bush." In a sense, the oil palm is to the Ibo villager what the reindeer is to the Eskimo. In a study of Owerri Province, Uzo found that the oil palm formed the economic backbone of the villagers.⁵ To them it was

- (a) a source of occasional employment for men, women, and children; who engaged in cutting the palm nuts, processing the oil, and cracking the kernel;
- (b) a source of material for local crafts, for making brooms, baskets, and ropes;
- (c) a source of cooking fat (palm oil), a local drink (palm "wine") and local medicine against children's convulsions (palm kernel oil);
- (d) a source of income and prestige. Palm oil and palm kernel are sold to the firms as raw materials for various industries.

⁵Uzo Una. The Oil Palm Industry in Owerri Province, (NCE Dissertation, A.T.T.C. Owerri 1967. Unpublished).

Unfortunately, partly from neglect by schools, the village crafts based on products from the oil palm are fast dying out. The preservation of the crafts is culturally desirable and therefore they should be taught in schools.

The animals the village farmer keeps include poultry, goats, and sheep. The poultry roam about the garden land and the compound to feed themselves. The goats and sheep are occasionally tethered and stall fed, especially after the planting season, when the crops have just germinated; otherwise they are left to roam about much like the poultry. The need for educators to popularize better methods of animal husbandry is obvious.

In the study area, some bold steps towards modernizing agriculture were taken before the Civil War, for it has long been realized that

Subsistence farming in the traditional way merely suffices to balance out-put and consumption generally for the family unit. Productivity is low and the tools are simple. There is complete dependence on natural phenomena such as rain and sunshine. Capital investment is negligible and the key production factors are land and labour, while the main staples consist essentially of items of low calorific value.⁶

⁶Okezie, J. O. J., Federal Commissioner for Agriculture, "Revolutionizing Our Agriculture," The Renaissance, June 13, 1974.

The Government established several farm settlements. Those established in the study area include Igbarian, Ohaji, Ulonna, and Uzo Uwani farm settlements. Each of the settlements was planned for a maximum of 720 farmers, living in six villages. The estimated cost of establishing a settler was N 3,000 (\$4,500). Each settler was to own 6.6 hectares of permanent tree crops, for example oil palm, rubber, citrus, or cocoa. A little over one hectare was allowed for his building, annual crops and poultry of about 50 layers. The settlers were organized into co-operatives to arrange for processing and marketing of their farm products. Some specialization was allowed among the farm settlements. The Ohaji Farm Settlement specialized in growing oil palm and rubber, the Uzo Uwani Settlement was based on swamp rice, raising two crops a year by irrigation. The Igbariam Settlement grew citrus and oil palm.⁷

After the war, a new agency, the Agricultural Development Authority, was formed to take over the management of the farm settlements. In fact the farm settlements could be regarded as another kind of school since their recruits had no previous agricultural training.

⁷Eastern Nigeria Ministry of Agriculture, Enugu. Our Farm Settlements, 1967.

Agricultural specialists find ready employment in the farm settlements. The bulk of the problem lies, however, with the over 5,000,000 village farmers in the State whose outlook and farming practices have to be improved in the interest of the economy. Teachers are regarded as opinion leaders in every village. Teachers working or teaching near the farm settlements can encourage the villagers to learn better methods from the settlers.

The attempt made at the modernization of the economy is more apparent in the industrial sector than in agriculture. Soon after the Civil War, the Government invited experts, not only to provide information on the cost of reactivation of damaged industries, but also to rationalize reactivation to ensure viability. As a result a good many of the pre-war industries were reactivated.⁸ The government was also going on with the establishment of new industries. These include the Palmke Oil Mills, Ltd., at Unumze in which Government owns a share of 33 1/3 per cent, the Ebony Paints, Ltd., Awkunanaw and the Eastern Brick Manufacturing, Ltd.⁹ In

⁸cf. The Renaissance, May 27, 1974.

addition to these, there are a few private industries of considerable size in the major urban centres of Aba, Enugu, and Onitsha. The State has the country's largest coalfield, which produces nearly a million tons of coal annually. Other minerals of importance are limestone, lead, and zinc.

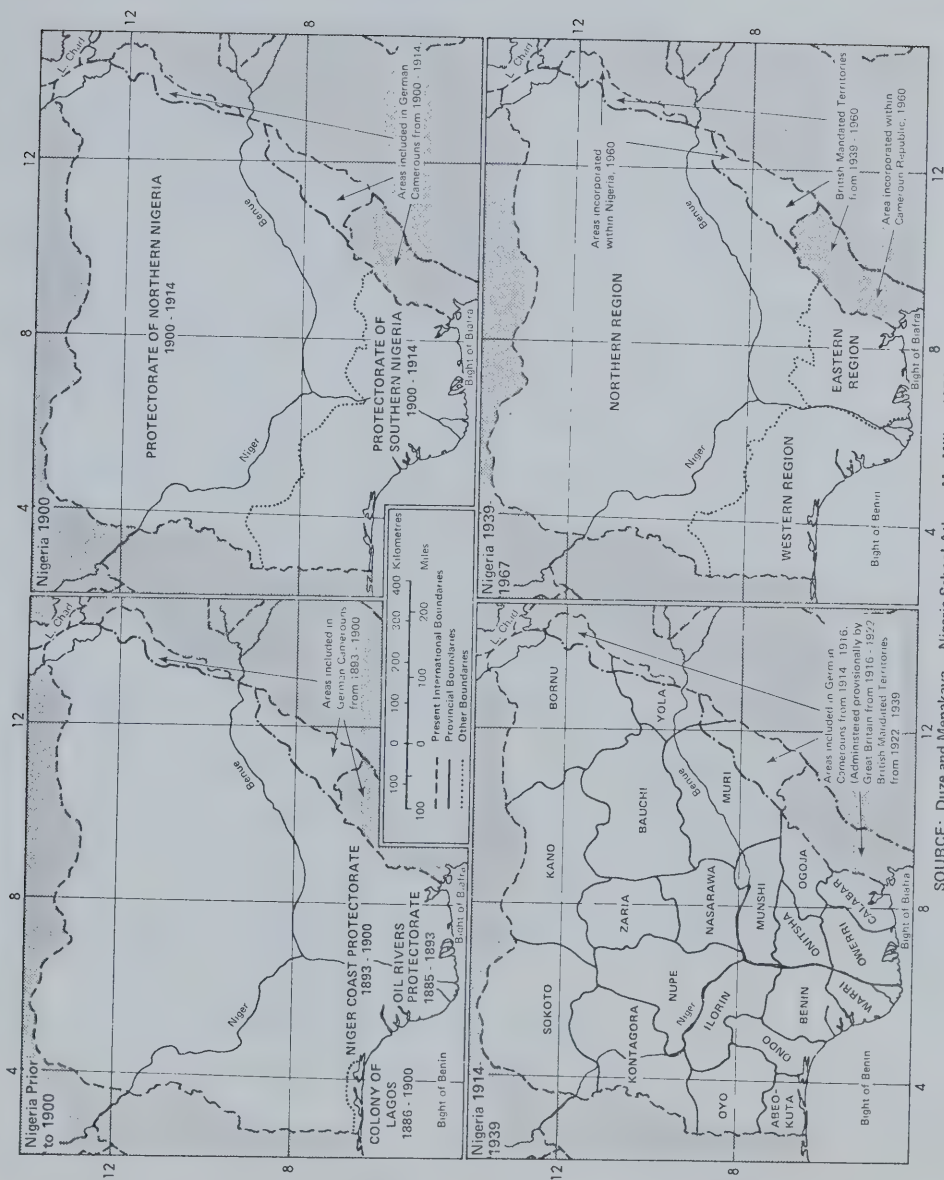
Industrialization and the search for jobs has led to a very rapid growth of the towns especially since after the Civil War. For example, Aba whose population in 1963 was 131,000 was in 1973 estimated to contain over half a million people. Roughly 50 per cent of the non-agricultural labour force live in urban areas (population concentrations of 20,000 or more).¹⁰ One major result of the phenomenal growth of the cities is that there are not enough houses for people in the towns in spite of the efforts of public and private concerns to meet the problem. Overcrowding is the rule rather than the exception. Sanitation is generally poor and in almost all cases population growth has outstripped the water supply. Water is required for industry and for domestic use, and there is practically no town that has enough.

Not all teachers realize, however, that schools

⁹
UNESCO Paris, Education in Nigeria, Vol. I, 1971, p. 28. Table IV, I.

unconsciously promote urbanization. School leavers tend to flock to urban centres in search of work. There is possibly a case for training urban-oriented teachers, who will appreciate the problems of the cities, and possibly act as youth leaders. This type of thinking is, however, rather new. For policies and practices that have guided teacher education in the past, one must take a look at the early development of education in Nigeria.

NIGERIA – HISTORICAL



SOURCE: Duze and Menakaya – Nigeria School Atlas – MacMillan, 1972

CHAPTER 11

THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

I. Introduction

The missionaries introduced formal education into the greater part of Nigeria, outside those Moslem areas where Koranic schools exist. In Southern Nigeria there were different types of traditional education, which have largely been displaced by formal education. Government came into the education field later to co-operate with the missionaries and to regulate their work.

Prior to 1939, educational administration was centralized in Nigeria. In that year, it was regionalized, although the separate regions were not given full authority over education until 1954. The regions were abolished in 1967 and in their place came the twelve States of Nigeria. Consequently, three phases of administration characterize teacher education in the study area. Namely:

- (a) The Nigeria phase.
- (b) The Eastern Region phase.
- (c) The East Central State phase.

The nation was plunged into a disastrous Civil War from 1967 to 1970, which disrupted the entire educational system. These historical factors have unmistakably left

their imprint on teacher education in the State.

2. Traditional Education¹

Before the British began to rule Nigeria, the territory consisted of several independent political units each under the rule of a king, chief, or a council of elders. Each group had its own traditional system of education, whose main function was to fit the individual to the life of the society. The education given was social and collective in nature, had a variety of goals and employed different strategies to achieve its goals. Everyone in society took part in the enterprise; parents, peer groups, elders, and lineage councils. Specialist training was provided by apprenticeship to a master craftsman or master trader. Public opinion, public praise or blame, was the chief means of evaluation known to the learner. The various teaching strategies adopted included the initiation ceremonies, local festivities, story telling, games, dances, sacrificial worship, taboos, markets, age group meetings, or the village assembly. The learning method was generally by direct participation in the event. Among the Ibos, however, there were in a few areas, marriage preparatory schools (Mgbede) for girls.

¹cf. Fafunwa, Babs A., "Traditional African Education," History of Education in Nigeria. London: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1973.

The educational goals had at last three identifiable aspects:

- (a) Physical training.
- (b) Character training.
- (c) Vocational training.

The methods used to achieve these various goals differed from one ethnic group to the other. The description that follows is based on the traditions of the Ibo people of East Central State of Nigeria.

Physical Training

Until quite recently, there were no other means of going to markets, to the farm, or to the stream except by walking or paddling canoes in riverine areas. There were no cars or bicycles. Those methods of travelling offered a lot of physical exercise. There were in addition some conscious efforts at physical training. These included balancing exercises like carrying calabash on the head and walking without touching it or somersaulting several times and standing up erect immediately after. The competitive games included tug-of-war, hopping on one leg, and wrestling. Wrestling offered a form of relaxation between the planting and the harvest seasons. It often involved all the men of a village at once, some drumming, some dancing, and others watching and encouraging the wrestlers. The rules of the game were generally known, and in case of doubt, there were elder people on the spot to give a verdict. A great

wrestler was very much respected among his age grade, for this could earn him a title to leadership in communal functions, which his age grade might be called upon to perform.

At various occasions and in various village ceremonies; birth, initiation, marriage, or death, there was thrilling music accompanied with vigorous dancing. Dancing offered one of the best means of body and mind training for the bodily movements must be matched with the musical rhythm and cadence.

Character Training

Traditional education laid great emphasis on character training. This was considered to be in effect the raison d'être of all forms of education. The various social groups, the family, the lineage, and the age grade, were all in many ways guardians of public morality for their members. The common saying was, "if one finger dipped into oil, the oil would quickly spread to the other fingers." As a result, censure, fines, or ostracism were employed, as the particular offense deserved, to correct erring members of the group. In the case of inter-group conflicts, the elders adjudicated on the questions of guilt or innocence. Every member of a group wanted all the members to be honest, courageous, and sociable. The worst crimes ever were stealing and murder within the group.

Moonlit nights gave an opportunity for telling folk stories, for sensitivity training games, and for learning the proverbs which often formed a person's reference point and explanation of behaviour in practical situations. The folklore was a means of teaching morals, the history of the clan, the local customs and local literature. After the evening meals, families gathered together to tell or chant animal stories, the exploits of their forefathers, or events of ages past. It was in this way that the histories of the clans were preserved. Some types of moonlight plays offered training in sensitivity. A person could clap the hands in particular styles several times and ask others to say what he meant. He could be blindfolded and asked to say who walked past him. One of a set of drums could be tapped in his absence and he could be told to touch the drum whose sound he heard. It was by means of these various devices that the child was trained to observe and to discriminate.

Character training for girls was perhaps much more systematic than for boys. In many areas and among the Ibo, there were pre-marriage training homes or fattening rooms as they were facetiously called. Teenage girls of early marriageable age were confined in compounds for periods of up to six months or more. During the period, they were looked after by elderly women. The girls were taught how to cook, how to live with husbands, and how to care for

their babies. The beginning and the end of the confinement period were marked by festivities accompanied with music and dancing. It was not unusual for some of the girls to be chosen as wives even before the festivities were over. For this, the opinion of the elderly women was often sought.

For both boys and girls the habit of greeting was insisted upon. It was the worst indication of bad manners to bypass an elderly person without greeting. Among the adults themselves, not greeting a person was regarded as a sign of ill will towards the other. Younger people were expected to help elders without payment, to surrender their seats to them and to refrain from boastful talk in their presence. Discussion about sex by young in the presence of elders was also unacceptable.

Training the young to participate in the government of his community was done by a gradual process. A boy learned to discuss issues, weigh evidence and take decisions by taking active part in age group deliberations. As he grew older, he would become a member of the village council and learn to abide by its decisions. He could end up as the leader or chief of the clan if he proved to be the most successful in oratory, in war, in farming, or trade. The Ibo society was egalitarian and open, and a person's status in it depended upon his known achievements.

Vocational Training

Girls often accompanied their parents to the market and thereby learned how to name prices of articles, how to argue over prices and how to make a favourable bargain. Similarly, they accompanied the mother to the farm and learned how to use the hoe for weeding, the best time and methods to plant various vegetables, and how to harvest and store crops. The planting of cassava and such vegetables as pumpkin, pepper, and garden eggs belonged to women, whereas in most cases, the growing of yams was the responsibility of men. From their early days therefore, boys had to learn the names of various types of yams, and the types of soil and moisture conditions in which they grew best. There are definite ways of making yam mounds, of cutting seed yams for planting, of staking the shoots, twining the tendrils, of harvesting, preparing, and stacking them in barns. All these a boy was expected to have at his fingers' ends since whatever occupation he might follow, he was expected to own yams. He could, however, do farming and yam growing as subsidiary engagement if he decided to follow one of the traditional trades. He would then be apprenticed to one of the specialists in the village. Among the lucrative occupations known to Ibo villagers were pottery, carving of doors, making of masks, elephant tusks, drums, ladles, and spoons, smithing and drumming. Blacksmiths made knives, hoes, guns, and bracelets.

There were specialist drummers at various ceremonial and funeral occasions. The youngster could also be apprenticed to a native doctor. This was not usually easy to do unless the apprentice was a near relative or someone given as a pledge to the native doctor. The village doctor often combined in himself all the wisdom, tradition, science, magic, and myth of the clan. He knew what herbs were used as cure for particular illnesses, what gods were offended by certain types of misbehaviour and how to placate them. He knew the past thoroughly well, and he was believed to be able to see the future with equal clarity. He was, as a result, a fortune teller. The native doctors were often delicately sensitive to situations around them and for this, they required and often possessed keen perception of human psychology. The apprenticeship generally lasted several years.

It could be seen therefore, that there was a traditional system of education which made community life possible. It had some features worthy of consideration by modern teachers. In those days, learning was living. Education was not looked upon as mere preparation for the future. Active participation, instant feedback and improved performance were some of its characteristics. But it was largely informal. It had no stated syllabus, schemes of work, or time-tables as we know them. There were no regular examinations and award of marks, and evaluation was not used to penalize weaker students, but to encourage

them to better efforts. It was the missionaries who introduced the first formal schools in the study area, and in fact to most of Nigeria, south of latitude ten degrees.

3. Formal Education: The Missionaries

The first modern missionary activities in the country started in western Nigeria in 1842. It was in that year that the Wesleyan Methodist mission arrived in Badagry and started a church and a school. The Church Missionary Society followed fast on their heels and like the Wesleyan Methodists established a school in Badagry. Forty years later both missions had over 2,600 pupils, and they had spread from Badagry to Abeokuta, to Lagos and other towns in western Nigeria. The Church Missionary Society was the more successful of the two, for at that time, it had about twice the number of pupils in its schools as the Wesleyan Methodists.² By the end of the century the C.M.S. (Church Missionary Society) had opened a secondary school in Lagos, and teacher training colleges in Abeokuta and Oyo, both in western Nigeria.

The two missions were soon joined by others: The Baptists; the Roman Catholics; the Church of Scotland Mission; the Qua Iboe; the Primitive Methodists, and a

²Adetoro, J. E. The Handbook of Education in Nigeria. London: Town and Gown, pp. 12-13.

number of smaller ones. By 1900 there were at least half a dozen foreign missions operating educational institutions in Nigeria. While the earlier missions started their activities in western Nigeria, the Church of Scotland Mission, the Qua Iboe Mission and the Primitive Methodists started their evangelization in the present South Eastern State and later established a few satellite stations in modern East Central State. But the missions that came to dominate the educational scene of East Central State were the C.M.S. and the Roman Catholic Mission. The first missionary journey into the area occupied by the State was made in 1857 when the famous Dayspring Voyage landed Reverend Samuel Adjai Crowther (later Bishop), Reverend John Christopher Taylor, and catechist Simon Jonas at Onitsha. They were members of the Church Missionary Society. Reverend Taylor and Simon Jonas were Ibos³ and were able to communicate directly with the people. Reverend Crowther was a liberated Yoruba slave who had been brought up in Sierra Leone as a missionary. The journey itself was led by Dr. Baikie. His name became a word that today means "white man" in Igbo language. Dr. Baikie himself was not a missionary but a naval physician in the service of the trading firms on the Niger coast. In those days, the

³Isichei, Elizabeth. The Ibo People and the Europeans. London: Faber and Faber, 1973, p. 92.

missionaries got help from the trading firms in their journeys from place to place since it was too expensive for them to buy their own ships. Reverend Taylor and Simon Jonas took charge of the Onitsha Mission, while Reverend Crowther supervised the various missions that had been started in different parts of southern Nigeria.

In the following year, a school was started at Onitsha for girls between the ages of six and ten years. As reported by Crowther himself, the boys were less willing to attend school:

The boys . . . like to rove about in plantations with their bows and pointed arrows in their hands to hunt for birds, rats, and lizzards all day long without success; but now and then half a dozen or more of them would rush into the "school" house and proudly gaze at the alphabet board and with an air of disdain mimic the names of the letters as pronounced by the school master and repeated by the girls, as if it were a thing fit only for females.⁴

For 28 years the C.M.S. were practically alone in the state in their evangelization mission until they were joined by the Roman Catholics, led by Reverend Father Lutz, a French priest. Their place of arrival was also Onitsha, where they started a church and a school.

Later, other missions extended their influence into Ibo land. From their headquarters at Oron in the present South Eastern State, the Primitive Methodist Mission established a school at Uzuakoli in 1922. The school at Uzuakoli

⁴Fafunwa, Babs A. Op. Cit., p. 83.

later grew into the Methodist College which has both a secondary section and a teacher training section. The United Free Church of Scotland also extended its activities from the present South Eastern State. In 1918 it established the Aro-Chukwu School Home for girls, to prepare them for marriage and to enable them to read the Bible to their children. Except in the content of what was learned, the idea of the School Home was not very far from that of the traditional "puberty schools."

It might be asked why the missionaries came to Nigeria at all. Their prime motive was clear from the start, "to win souls for Christ." They found, as Kluckhohn would say,⁵ that the prevailing man-nature orientation among Nigerians was entire subjugation to nature by their worship of such phenomena as the sun, moon, stars, animals, and trees. They wanted to substitute monotheism for their customary subjugation to nature and counted no sacrifice too great to achieve declared objectives. Furthermore, some of the freed slaves who had returned to Nigeria wanted to have churches and schools established in their native land. They invited missionaries from Sierra Leone and elsewhere to Nigeria.⁶

⁵Kluckhohn, Florence Rockwood and Strodtbeck, Fred L. Variations in Value Orientations. New York: Row Peterson & Company, 1961, p. 12.

⁶Solaru, T. T. and Espie Ian, Op. Cit., pp. 1-3.

There were also charitable organizations in Britain, America, and France who were willing to finance the missionary enterprise. The type of assistance and co-operation they got from the trading firms has already been noted in the case of the Dayspring Voyage.

The Early Schools

The missionaries had two types of schools; the day schools and the Sunday schools. The latter originated in England in the eighteenth century through the influence of Robert Raikes and Hannah More, as a method of keeping children of the poor occupied and off the streets. The former was modelled on the charity schools of England. The objectives of the two types of schools in Nigeria were practically the same, to convert the people to christianity. The day schools had extended programmes including reading, writing, and arithmetic; all used as a means to give the people "knowledge of the Bible, the ability to sing hymns, recite catechisms as well as the ability to communicate orally or in writing."⁷ It was not till later years that some modifications were made to the purely literary scheme. The following description taken from the diary of Anna Hinderer, one of the early missionaries, gives a clear idea

⁷Fafunwa, Babs A. Op. Cit., pp. 81-91.

of the nature of the education offered:

The first bell rings at 8:30, from then till a few minutes before 9:00, when the second bell rings, we can look out and see our people coming with their nice English bags of coloured prints, or their own grass bags, on their heads, containing their books; some with only a primer, others, more advanced in the new art of reading with various portions of the Word of God: St. Luke, the Psalms, Proverbs, and Genesis, being among the great favourites. . . . Now the whole of the New Testament is complete, and bound in one volume, and our people will, I know, be much delighted with such a volume. We see the people hastening towards us as 9:00 o'clock approaches, for the one hour for school is too precious to be wasted by being five minutes late. The school consists of men and women, who are most anxiously and diligently reading and learning to read; men on one side of the church and women on the other. We have to use our more advanced day scholars as teachers for some classes. . . . We have about eight or nine classes of different stages. . . . We gather these together and first tell them a short simple Bible story, and let them tell us again, to see that they remember it, and take it in. Then we teach them a text, or a verse of a hymn, and the last quarter of an hour is always given in all classes to teaching by repetition some catechism, and sometimes for a change we have the whole school together to go over the Creed, the Lord's Prayer, and the Ten Commandments, to make sure they are not forgotten. . . . Our African Sunday School, 26 July, 1859.⁸

An idea of the programme of the day schools could be got from the instructions sent by Reverend Thomas Birch Freeman, Superintendent of the Methodist Mission, to schools under his management in 1848:

⁸Ibid., pp. 86-87.

9:00 a.m. Singing; rehearsals of Scripture passages, reading one chapter of Scripture, prayers;

9:15 - 12:00 noon: Grammar, reading, spelling, writing, geography, tables (on Wednesday catechism instead of grammar);

2:00 p.m.-4:00 p.m., CIPHERING, reading, spelling, meaning of words;

4:00 p.m., Closing prayers.⁹

Most of the pupils of the early day schools lived in mission compounds with the missionaries, a practice adopted to ensure regular attendance, to prevent them from falling back into paganism, and to make it easy for the trading firms to send liberated slaves to the missions. A good many of the pupils of the early schools were children of freed slaves or of local domestic slaves, for when missionaries approached chiefs to send children to their schools, the chiefs preferred sending their slaves to sending their own children. The boarded pupils were sometimes provided with bright uniforms, readers, Bibles, and copy books.¹⁰ As time went on, the natives themselves began to send their sons and daughters to the schools without being asked. The bright

⁹ Ibid., p. 88.

¹⁰ cf. Wise, Colin G. A History of Education in British West Africa. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1956, p. 24.

uniforms of the pupils and the readiness with which the educated ones got paid employment from the trading firms, the government, and the missions contributed to their desire for the "whiteman's education." The schools at Onitsha formed the seed-bed of other schools founded later in the present East Central State. From this survey certain facts emerge:

- (a) The missionaries bore the initial cost of establishing schools in Nigeria and worked independently of Government.
- (b) Each mission determined what its educational programme was to be and how it was to be carried out. Thus there was no uniformity in syllabuses, facilities, or standards.
- (c) Staffing was irregular since the missionaries had to go on furlough periodically.
- (d) The over-riding motive of their enterprise was religious.
- (e) They attached importance to manual labour. They were strict disciplinarians: the "Gospel and the plough" were used as instruments of conversion. Apart from purely literary education, they established vocational schools of agriculture in Onitsha, Lokoja, Calabar, and Abeokuta. They introduced carpentry, plumbing, bricklaying, and ginnery into some of their schools. The Roman Catholic Mission even established an industrial school for delinquent children at Topo.
- (f) The larger missions established an inspectorate system for their schools, a system which was later approved and financed by the Government. Thus arose a system of dual inspection, which was later abolished in Eastern Region of Nigeria.¹¹

¹¹ Imoke, S. E. (Hon. Minister). The Re-organization of the Education Ministry, Eastern Nigeria, Policy Statement. Enugu, August 1962. "We want to evolve a system whereby all inspection of schools will be under the direction and control of the Ministry, and to this end, Government may, after consultation with the Voluntary Agencies, have to absorb suitably

4. Government Intervention

For several decades the missionaries were alone in the field of formal education in Nigeria. Between 1874 and 1876, the Government started to make token grants to the missionaries for their educational work. In the latter date, a grant of 600 pounds was shared among the three main missions: the C.M.S.; the Wesleyan Methodists; and the Roman Catholics. Ten years later (1887), the first Nigerian Education Ordinance was enacted. A Board of Education was established under the ordinance, and a system of paying grants in aid to approved mission schools was prescribed. Among other conditions, payment was to be made on the bases of average attendance, results of examinations, school discipline, and the number of subjects offered. Later, an Education Department for the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria was established (1903) and this was followed by the promulgation of a new education code. Government itself was to participate actually in the provision of schools. The first Government School in the Protectorate was already opened in Benin City in

Footnote 11 continued:

qualified and Travelling and Supervising teachers at present employed by the Voluntary Agencies, and who are acceptable to the Public Service Commission into Government service as Inspecting Assistants, responsible to the Chief Inspector through the zonal Inspectors. p. 9.

1901, with financial assistance from the local chiefs. Twelve years later, Government had as many as 59 assisted schools in the country. The enrolment in Government assisted and non-assisted schools came roughly to 24,000.¹² The Government schools were established and maintained wholly, or in part, by local contributions from the chiefs and people. Government Inspectors checked school buildings, adequacy and efficiency of staff and conducted examinations for pupils. Their duties took them to both the Government and the mission schools.

In 1925, the British Government issued a policy statement on education in their African dependencies.¹³ This policy guided the administration of education in Nigeria up to the end of the Second World War. The Memorandum was followed in Nigeria by a new education code, the 1926 Code. The code inter alia:

1. Required that teachers must be registered as a condition for teaching in any school in Southern Nigeria. . . .
2. Forbade the opening of a school unless approved by the Director of Education and the Board of Education.

¹²Fafunwa, Babs A. Op. Cit., p. 97.

¹³Memorandum on Educational Policy in British Tropical Africa. H.M.S.O. 1925.

3. Authorized the closing of a school if it was being conducted in a manner not in the interest of the people or the community where it was located.
4. Defined the functions and duties of supervisors or mission inspectors.
5. Expanded and strengthened the existing Board of Education by including the Director and the Deputy Director of Education, the Assistant Director, ten representatives of the mission and other educational agencies, and re-defined the Board's functions to include advice to the government on educational matters.
6. Regulated minimum pay for teachers employed in an assisted school.¹⁴

It can thus be seen that the main objective of the code was to curb the rapid growth of schools all over Southern Nigeria.

The next important milestone in the administration of education in Nigeria occurred in the early thirties when Mr. E. R. J. Hussey became the Director of Education. This coincided with the period of the Depression, so that Government found it difficult to cope with the provision of grants in aid to schools. The Depression had adverse effect on Nigerian trade and reduced Government earnings. Although the number of schools continued to increase, the grants to the missions had to be reduced. Salaries of teachers were unpaid, and in Calabar this led to a strike by the teachers. Government itself had to reduce its

¹⁴Fafunwa, Babs A. Op. Cit., p. 126.

European staff by as many as forty-two officers. Inspection of schools was rarely done. It was this grim financial situation that led Mr. Hussey to propose a re-organization of the education system. As a result:

1. Several Government schools were handed over to the missions or to native administrations, so that by 1938, only 31 schools were left as Government schools.
2. Native administrations were encouraged to open new schools. Between 1930 and 1938, these grew from 12 to a total of 76.
3. There were to be three levels of education for Nigeria:
 - (a) The 8-year primary school course was to be reduced to 6 years, with the vernacular as the medium of instruction. This was not accepted in the Eastern Provinces.
 - (b) The secondary school would have a 6-year programme to prepare pupils for employment.
 - (c) There were to be special schools for girls.
 - (d) There was to be a vocational higher education centre. This latter recommendation led to the establishment of the Yaba Higher College.
 - (e) Teacher training was to be re-organized so that there would be separate institutions for teachers of lower classes of primary schools and for those of the higher forms. The proposed vocational higher education centre would also train teachers for secondary schools.
4. Hussey introduced the system of visiting teachers or African Travelling Teachers as they were popularly known. These were experienced Nigerian teachers employed by Government to assist in the inspection of schools.

The end of the Second World War saw the preparation of a ten-year development plan for Nigeria. It included

education. The plan, as approved, "laid down government policy on administration and control, local education authorities, financing, primary, secondary, technical, agricultural, religious, higher and adult education, health and welfare of school children, recruitment and training of teachers, language, Arabic studies and protection of antiquities,"¹⁵ Despite the Depression and the war, grants to schools and school enrolment had increased. Between 1937 and 1947, for example, school enrolment had gone from 238,000 to 626,000,¹⁶ and school grants from less than £106,500 to £758, 700,¹⁷ despite weak government resources. Hence in the latter year, Sydney Phillipson was appointed to review the conditions of grants in aid. The report recognized that government grants were not adequate. A formula was devised which proved rather difficult in practice: "the amount of grant-in aid payable to a recognized school should consist of the recognized expenses, less the Assumed Local Contribution." By Assumed Local Contribution was meant school fees and local contributions, which differed from area to area. For teacher training institutions, the grant was to cover the amount of the teachers' salaries

¹⁵ Ibid., p. 163.

¹⁶ Ukeje, B. O. Op. Cit., p. 65

¹⁷ Fafunwa. Op Cit., p. 163.

including responsibility allowances, together with a capitation grant and a book allowance for each student. The first year of the implementation of the scheme (1948-49) saw government grants rise to £1,250,000.

Finally it should be noted that between 1929 and 1954, any provisions or regulations on education made in Lagos covered the whole country. Prior to that the Northern Provinces of Nigeria had a separate education Department from the South. When education became a Regional matter, each Region legislated for its own territory. The role of the Central Government during this period may be briefly stated as follows:

- (a) Payments of grants in aid to mission and Native Administration schools from the public revenue.
- (b) Ownership and management of schools to augment the efforts of the other agencies.
- (c) Inspection of schools by Government education officers, African travelling teachers and voluntary agency inspectors paid by Government.
- (d) Authorizing the opening and closure of educational institutions.
- (e) Conducting examinations, including teachers' certificate examinations, theoretical and practical.
- (f) Prescribing syllabuses to be followed in all schools and teacher training colleges in the country.

These policies and practices were inherited by the various Regions when they came to be responsible for education in their areas in 1954. For the Regional administration that

East Central State of Nigeria as part of the former Eastern Region of Nigeria



specifically affected the study area, one must look to the condition of education within the Eastern Region of Nigeria.

5. Education Under the Eastern Nigeria Governemnt

The Administration¹⁸

The Nigeria Constitution of 1951 gave the control of education to the Regions. When the Regions came into being, each had to develop a framework for the administration of education within its area. Prior to their assuming full authority for education, each Region had a Deputy Director, and the Deputy Directors were responsible to the Director in Lagos. A Deputy Director was in charge of the Eastern Region and the Southern Cameroons which was then part of Nigeria. (Fig. 2). The 1951 Constitution gave the Regions the power to appoint their own Directors and to make regulations within their own areas. The former Federal Director became Inspector General of Education. As a result of the devolution of power, Eastern Region came to have a Minister of Education, a Director, a Deputy Director, and three inspectors to take charge of primary, secondary, and teacher training, but

¹⁸cf. Eastern Nigeria Annual Reports, 1957, 1960, 1963.

at that time, the Minister had not wide powers of direction and control.

The 1954 constitutional conference gave the Regions additional powers including education. Southern Cameroons separated from the Eastern Region, the Civil Service was regionalized, and the staff of the Education Department in the Region became employees of the Regional Government. The organization for education was modified in 1956 and again in 1959. As a result of the latter, the Ministry of Education was organized in three divisions each responsible to the Minister through the Permanent Secretary.¹⁹

- (a) Administration Division. At the head was a Principal Assistant Secretary who had charge of the following: Registration of Teachers; Examination Arrangements; Students' Affairs; External Aid; Planning and Statistics; Salary Assessments; School Terms; Grants-in-aid Policy; Building Supervision; Teachers' Disciplinary Council, and posting of administrative Staff.
- (b) Establishment and Finance Division. At the head was a Senior Assistant Secretary responsible for the following subjects: Budgetting; Control of Expenditure; Indents and Local Purchases; Disbursement of Grants; Internal Audit; Administrative arrangements arising from postings; Office accommodation; Transport; Housing; Payment of Allowances; Stationery and Stores.

¹⁹ Ministry of Education, Eastern Nigeria. Policy for Education. Official Document, No. 7, of 1963, pp. 2-3.

- (c) Inspectorate Division, headed by a Chief Inspector of Education responsible for the inspection of schools and colleges, educational conferences, syllabuses and curricula; educational publications and textbooks, setting and marking of examination papers, audio-visual aid, and deployment of professional staff. The Region was divided into 5 Provinces and later into 12 Provinces. In each case there were Provincial Education Officers responsible to headquarters.

In order to help maintain standards throughout the Federation, the Joint Consultative Committee (J.C.C.) was created. The Committee was made up of the representatives of the various Ministries of Education including the Federal Ministry. It also included representatives from the institutions of higher education in the country as well as Nigeria Union of Teachers. The J.C.C. has sub-committees on teacher training, technical, secondary, and rural education, but in every case the function of the J.C.C. is purely advisory.

Primary Education

The Eastern Nigeria Government inherited an 8-year primary education system, the first four years being regarded as the junior primary, the second four years the senior primary section. It was decided in 1956 to make all primary education fee-free the following year. The bulk of the money for running the schools would come from the Regional Government and education rating on a 55-45 (55 per cent regional, 45 per cent

local) basis.²⁰ But before the scheme started, education rating was abolished because the collection suffered from poor machinery, improper timing, corrupt practices and inadequate accounting.²¹

There were other difficulties. The total number of children that had registered for the new school year was 481,691 for the Infant One class alone. Accommodation was to be found for those who could not be absorbed in the existing schools. A grant of 300 pounds was made to the local Education Committee for each new school building they decided to put up. In many cases, the buildings erected were mere pillars and corrugated iron roofs which did not give any adequate protection against sun or rain. The new schools lacked the barest equipment. It was not possible to find enough qualified teachers to run the scheme. As a result, trained teachers were prevented from teaching in the new Universal Primary Education (U.P.E.) schools. The schools were left to "C" or untrained teachers to organize, and for this they

²⁰The proposal was contained in the 1954 East Nigeria Sessional Paper No. 4: On Education. Ministry of Information, Enugu.

²¹Ministry of Education. Report on the Review of the Educational System in Eastern Nigeria. Official Document No. 19 of 1962, pp. 8-9.

were required to undergo a pre-service course of four weeks on the teaching of the three Rs, making and use of apparatus, school organization and physical training. The trainees paid a fee of one pound each to defray the cost of the training. Furthermore, secretaries of Country Councils, who had had no previous experience in running schools, were appointed managers of the U.P.E. schools.

When the scheme came into operation in 1957, school enrolment jumped from 775,144 in the previous year to 1,209,167. The ratio of trained to untrained teachers in the school system rose from 1:2.6 to 1:4.²² The actual education expenditure exceeded the estimate by as much as two million pounds, yet teachers' salaries were in arrears to the tune of over one million pounds. As a result, the whole scheme had to be modified the following year. School fees were re-introduced. When the new school year started, there were riots all over the Region by parents objecting to the modification of the scheme.²³ By way of concession, the first two primary classes, infants 1 and 2, were made fee free. This was to be extended annually until it came to Standard 2 in 1959. Even so, it was found necessary to

²²Ibid.

²³Ibid. The salary arrears were paid up later.

reduce the duration of primary education from eight to seven in the interest of economy. It was again reduced to six years with only the first three classes fee-free. In spite of these measures, Government found it difficult to finance education. When the military government took over in 1966, it found it necessary to charge fees in all classes of primary school from one pound to six pounds per annum according to the pupils' class at school.

The Dike Report

The failure of the U.P.E. Scheme led to the appointment of the Dike Commission, which was asked to review the educational system in Eastern Nigeria. The Commission reported in 1962. On primary education, it recommended as follows:²⁴

1. That since it will be necessary to postpone any large scale attempts at increasing the number of fee-free classes, the assumed local contribution should be reduced as available finances permit increased support of primary education.
2. That special adjustments of the assumed local contribution be made in economically least favoured areas by the device of zoning.

²⁴Ministry of Education, Enugu. Report on the Review of the Educational System in Eastern Nigeria.

Official Document No. 19 of 1962. The Chairman of the Commission was K.O. Dike, hence the name "Dike Report."

3. That present restrictions on expansion should stand, but with the Minister annually to approve lateral increases within a fixed number arrived at after provincial assessments of available accommodation have been made.
4. That the regulation of the Education Law requiring "educational necessity and efficiency" as a condition precedent for a grant be restored to its proper place in the administration of education.
5. That more qualified and better trained teachers be placed in primary school classrooms.
6. That the Regional Government complete the Local Authority schools that it initiated.
7. That handbooks and guides for teachers in primary schools be prepared.
8. That more attention be paid to the development of art and music in primary schools.
9. That the revision of the senior primary syllabus be accelerated with particular attention to History and Geography.
10. That a special enquiry on language teaching be initiated.
11. That an improved system for the conduct of the examination for First School Leaving Certificate be developed.
12. That serious attention should be given to a curriculum arrangement of one year infants' work, and six years of "standard" primary work, with pupils prepared for secondary work at the age of twelve plus.

At the end of their course, the primary school pupils took the First School Leaving Certificate Examination conducted by the Government. Those students who wanted to go into secondary schools took the entrance examinations conducted by the proprietors of the individual schools.

On the administration of education, the Commission recommended a more closely co-ordinated system of administration and inspection and the transfer of Local Agency schools to Provincial Authorities. The Managers of Voluntary Agency schools should be drawn from the ranks of Nigerian schoolmasters who were experienced in educational work.

Secondary Education

There were different types of secondary schools: secondary grammar; secondary commercial; secondary technical; and trade centres, all recruiting their students from the graduates of the primary school. The idea of the comprehensive secondary school was new. A pilot comprehensive secondary school was established at Port Harcourt, but its existence was cut short by the Civil War. On secondary schools, the Dike Commission recommended a 6-3-3 system (6 years primary, 3 years junior secondary, 3 years senior secondary). It also recommended a common entrance examination, the introduction of the teaching of French, and the improvement of the teaching of science and mathematics. The Eastern Region Government, for that reason, started to pay special allowances to teachers of science.

Some secondary grammar schools had Sixth Form classes which require two years additional study for the

Higher School Certificate. When the primary school period was reduced from eight to seven years, the secondary school period was increased from 4 to 5. No further increase was made when the primary school period was further reduced to six years duration. The result was that the Eastern Region had the shortest primary-secondary schooling period in the country. Their system became 6-5, while in the North it was 7-3-3, in the West 6-6, and in Lagos 8-4. These exclude the Sixth Form.

The Nigerian secondary schools prepared their students for examinations set by the West African Examination Council, which replaced Cambridge University as the examiner for Nigerian secondary schools. The commercial secondary schools took the examinations set by the London Royal Society of Arts, while the technical secondary schools were examined by City and Guilds, London. Secondary school teaching followed the syllabuses prescribed by these examining bodies, and the passing of the final examinations came to engulf all other educational objectives.

Teaching Training

The Eastern Region had a variety of teacher training institutions. Some types were abolished in due course. The teacher training colleges of this period and their problems are described in Chapter IV.

Higher Education

The Eastern Nigeria Government was committed to heavy educational expenditure from another angle, the establishment of the University of Nigeria. After the passing of the University Bill into law in 1955, the Eastern Nigeria Marketing Board set aside five million pounds for the establishment of the university. It was required to make available half a million pounds annually. The university was formally opened at Nsukka in October, 1960, with a first intake of 220 students. By 1965 the university had received 3.5 million pounds from the Marketing Board for projects and administration costs.²⁵

The university was built on the American land grant college idea, and was sponsored by Michigan State University, U.S.A. It took over the campus of College of Arts, Science, and Technology established at Enugu by the Federal Government, so that the university was run in two campuses; Nsukka and Enugu.

Three other institutions of higher education were established by the Eastern Nigeria Government. These were the Institute of Management, Enugu; the College of Technology, Enugu; and the Advanced Teacher Training College, Owerri.

²⁵Fafunwa, Babs A. Op. Cit., p. 221.

In concluding this survey it should be pointed out that the Eastern Nigeria Government inherited some of the educational policies already laid down by the Nigeria Government. This includes the payment of grants to Voluntary Agencies, the establishment of government schools and the encouragement of local communities to own schools. Like the Nigeria Department of Education before it, the Eastern Region Ministry of Education found it difficult to finance its schools. In fact, education took a disproportionate share of the government recurrent expenditure as the following table shows:

TABLE V

Percentage of Eastern Nigeria Government
Recurrent Expenditure Spent on Education
1955 - 1967

Year	Percentage
1955	37.6
1956	42.5
1957	40.0
1958	43.4
1959	45.2
1960	44.9
1961	41.5
1962	38.2
1963/4	34.8
1964/5	39.3
1965/6	37.0
1966/7	40.0

(Source): (Table V) Adaralegbe Adeniyi: Problems and Issues in Financing Education in Nigeria. West African Journal of Education, Feb. 1972, p. 29, Table I.

In 1960, for example , its expenditure per pupil per type of school was as follows:

TABLE VI
Expenditure Per Pupil By Type of
School in Eastern Nigeria in 1960

Type of School	Expenditure Per Head Per Year
Primary	(Pound) 2:10s
Secondary	33:10s
Teacher Training	64:02s
Technical	183:10s

Source: Ministry of Education, Enugu, Annual Report 1960, p. 7.

Despite the cost, Eastern Nigeria educational services were among the most developed in Nigeria and indeed Africa.²⁶ Acclaiming the efforts of the Government to provide education for the people, the Region's Ministry of education wrote:

²⁶UNESCO, Paris, Op. Cit., Vol I, p. 73.

Eastern Nigeria with its six thousand, four hundred and fifty-one primary schools, one hundred and ninety-seven secondary schools in operation and twenty-eight given approval in principle to open, one hundred and seven teacher training colleges and a university, and the largest school population in the Federation of Nigeria, which barring the U.A.R. leads the whole of Africa, has a right to be justly proud of its role and achievements in the essential task of educating its citizens. This pride is shared by Government and people alike. Almost every village in the Region has one or more primary school, built entirely and enthusiastically by communal effort, with Government contributing nothing towards the cost of these buildings. The same applies by and large to the construction of secondary school buildings by Voluntary Agencies, where the bulk of the money used in the construction of such buildings is mainly found by the local people themselves, Government and other outside assistance playing a minor role. In this way, Government is able to devote its financial resources to the payment of teachers, as well as to the maintenance, equipment, and running expenses.²⁷

This progress was halted and all the services went to ruins during the disastrous Civil War.

²⁷ Ministry of Education, Eastern Nigeria. Policy For Education. Official Document No. 7 of 1963, p. 1.

CHAPTER III

THE CIVIL WAR

(1967 - 1970)

I. INTRODUCTION

The Nigerian Civil War was one of the greatest calamities in the history of Africa. Its toll in men, money, and materials can better be imagined than described. Thousands or millions died from starvation; from air raids; from bullets, and from sheer frustration. It was a nightmare to all those who lived and worked in Eastern Nigeria all their lives. Their inability to understand the impending disaster was colossal. For example, the very day that the military governor, Colonel Ojukwu declared secession, Eastern Nigeria education officers were having their usual regular meeting, and ironically enough, one of the recommendations they approved was that the Federal Government should unify the Inspectorate to ensure uniformity of standards between the Regions, and to make it easy for pupils to transfer from the schools of one Region to the other when the need arose. The recommendation was prompted by the difficulty of placing refugee pupils

who had come from other regions. There had been constitutional and industrial crises in the Region in the past; all of them lasted not longer than a few weeks.²⁸ Little was it known that a crisis of a different nature was looming ahead. Throughout Nigeria's political history, Eastern Nigerians had been keen advocates of the concept of a united progressive Nigeria, and the last thing the majority envisaged was secession.

Two hours after the meeting dispersed, the radio began to sing what was called the Biafra National anthem. The following day, bold newspaper headlines declared that Eastern Nigeria had seceded under the name Biafra. The amount of propaganda accompanying the event made it extremely difficult to distinguish fact from fiction. The war lasted so long because people were led to believe that there was a plan to exterminate them as a group. The most unbelievable thing that happened at the end of the war was the granting of general amnesty and the reinstatement of workers in their jobs.

²⁸For example, the Eastern Nigeria Bank Inquiry, the 1953 Constitutional Crisis in Eastern Nigeria, and the crisis before it which led to the shooting of coal miners.

Causes of Dissension

The achievement of national freedom is almost invariably succeeded by the fragmentation of the national concord. As the bonds of common purpose are broken, tribal, regional, or religious groupings re-assert themselves.²⁹

This fragmentation of the political concord was, in the case of Nigeria, facilitated by the pre-independence decisions. The political framework had not been stable. In 1900 it was decided that the country would be governed as three units, in 1906 as two units, in 1914 as one unit.³⁰ In 1939, it was again to be ruled as three units, and in 1951 as a federation of highly disproportionate units with reserve powers in the component regions. One of the regions was larger in area and population than all the others combined, and had over 50 per cent representation in the Federal Legislature, as shown in Table VII.

The southern Regions feared perpetual political domination by the North. On the other hand, the North was the least developed economically and educationally as shown in Table VIII.

²⁹Curle, Adam. Educational Strategy for Developing Societies. London: Tavistock Publications, 1963, p. 35.

³⁰Hatch, John. Nigeria, The Seeds of Disaster. Chicago: Henry Reguery Co., 1970, p. 238.

TABLE VII

The Regions of Nigeria Showing Population
Distribution, Percentage of Total, and
Pre-Independence Allocation of Seats in the
Federal Legislature (House of Representatives)

Region	(a) Population 000s	(b) Percentage of Total Population	(c) Seats in Legislature 1959
North	29,809	53.4	174
East	12,394	22.3	73
West	12,802	23.1	62
Lagos (Federal)	665	1.2	3
Total	55,670	100.0	312

Source: (a) and (b) Nigeria Census 1963.

(c) Hatch, John. Op. Cit., pp. 259-297.

The allocation of seats was based on the 1953 Census when the populations of East and West were returned as 7.2 and 6.0 millions respectively. (Ekanem, 1972).

TABLE VIII³¹

Indices of Relative Regional Levels (a) of
Public Services (North = 1.0)

	North	East	West	Mid- West	Lagos
Education 1965 Enrolment in					
1. Elementary School	1.0	5.1	4.71	8.1	8.6
2. Secondary School (Grammar)	1.0	8.0	(b)	(b)	28.9
3. University output	1.0	11.5	9.5	10.7	1.9
Transportation 1965.					
Length of all					
1. Roads	1.0	1.7	1.4	3.1	3.1
2. Tarred Roads	1.0	1.2	3.4	4.1	2.0
Health 1964					
1. General Hospital Beds	1.0	2.1	1.2	2.5	4.8
2. All Medical Institution Beds	1.0	3.1	2.8	3.5	12.3
Regional Government Expenses					
1955 - 66					
1. Total Current	1.0	1.4	2.11	2.5	-
2. Total Capital	1.0	2.2	2.4	3.8	-

Source: Calculated from Federal Office of Statistics, Lagos, Annual Abstract of Statistics, 1966.

(a) To obtain these indices, divide the data of each region by that of the North. Divide the population of the North by that of the relevant region. Multiply the two results together.

(b) The secondary school data for the West and Mid-West are not comparable with those of other regions because Western and Midwestern figures are inflated by modern school students. The Mid-West Region was created in 1963.

³¹Diejomaoh, Victor P. "The Economics of the Nigeria Conflict:" Nigeria: Dilemma of Nationhood. Joseph Okpaku (ed.) West Port, Connecticut. Greenwood Publishing Company, 1972, p.319.

The East, West, Midwest, and Lagos made up the South. The North feared that it was being economically dominated by the South.

The political parties that ruled the country drew their strength from different Regions. The major political party in the North was the N.P.C. (Northern Peoples Congress). In the East and Midwest it was the N.C.N.C. (The National Convention of Nigerian Citizens), and in the West and Lagos it was the A.G. (Action Group). The southern parties wanted the creation of more regions in the North, but the North resisted. Minority areas in the East wanted their own region, but the East resisted. In almost all cases, the political parties preached the gospel of political unity, but invariably the governments they controlled put regional interests above those of the Federation. The result was that when national issues were discussed, they ended up in a babel of contradictory voices and when coalitions were formed, they proved ephemeral.

The Federal elections of 1964 and the Western Region elections of 1965 became, when considered together, the yoke that broke the camel's back. Mokuugo Okoye has aptly summarized the situation thus:

As for two parliamentary elections in 1964 and 1965, the shilly-shallying incompetence of the Electoral Commission, the bad faith of the officials, and the brutal intimidation of opposition candidates, especially in the North and West,

culminating in a barefaced rigging in several constituencies, will ever remain a stain in the memories of those who perpetrated these crimes. One can recall now . . . the road blocks, police harassments, unlawful detentions, sometimes without charges, the killings and torturings of opponents and burning of houses and vehicles, the abductions of electoral officers, denials of permits for public meetings . . . the stuffing of ballot boxes by "pregnant" women, or even the declaration of results before counting was completed . . . The irregularities and more were subsequently confirmed by both the President of the Republic . . . and the Chairman of the Federal Electoral Commission.³²

Amidst this confusion, a military coup took place in January, 1966. The Nigerian Armed Forces took over the Federal Government. The coup was initially hailed as patriotic, but a later interpretation of its being tribally motivated led to a counter coup in July of the same year. This was followed by a series of disturbances all over Nigeria, and people of Eastern Nigeria had to abandon their places of residence and return to their native villages. The new military government tackled the most thorny problem in the country; the creation of States. On May 27, 1967, Nigeria was divided into twelve States, one of them being the East Central State. The civil war that ensued when Eastern Nigeria decided to secede ended in January 1970. The theatre of war was mostly Eastern Nigeria. The

³²Okoye, Mokwugo.. "Politics and Problems of the First Republic." ECBS Digest July, 1974.

secessionist Biafra was conquered, and East Central State rejoined the Federation.

The Illusion of Secession

It was a Midwestern Commissioner who said that if Nigerians knew enough geography, they would not have gone to war. (Clarke, 1970). There are many compelling reasons why Nigeria should remain one sovereign political entity. Its great size in area and population means that it has a great potential for economic development, leading to a better standard of living for its citizens as well as giving it bargaining power in the comity of nations. It provides one of the largest markets in Africa and hence a major attraction for foreign investments. Division of the country into smaller republics would negate these advantages, stifle industrialization, and condemn the population to perpetual underdevelopment.

Furthermore, Nigeria as constituted has a diversity of resources. Exports from the Federation include many different commodities such as palm oil and palm kernel cocoa; groundnuts; cotton; rubber; timber; coal; petroleum; lead; zinc, and tin. Since the prices of these commodities do not all move in the same direction all the time, depreciation in one is offset by the appreciation of the others, unlike in those countries whose small size condemns them

to over-dependence on one commodity for their export earnings. If Nigeria was allowed to disintegrate, the economy of the parts would be in greater jeopardy. It is to be noted that the main agricultural export of Western Nigeria is cocoa; of the East, palm produce; and of the North, cotton and groundnuts. It is on these that the majority of the peasants depend for their cash income. Again, from the beginning the economic infrastructure has been developed as a unit. These include the roads, railways, harbours, electrical, postal, and tele-communications. Disintegration of these would ruin the economy.

On the other hand, if Eastern Nigeria succeeded in seceding because a greater part of the Nigerian petroleum was in its territory, what would have prevented the minorities in the new Biafra from wanting to secede because the greater part of the oil lay in their soil?

In many parts of the former Eastern Region, the density of population, as has already been noted,³³ is one of the highest in Africa. On the other hand, in the rest of the Federation, especially in the Northern Region, the density is much lower. There have been migrations from the thickly populated Eastern Region to the less dense areas of the Federation. Such migrations

³³See Chapter I, Table II

help to boost the economy of the entire country. On the other hand, secession could have meant an end to it with resultant increase in unemployment.

The south is mainly a forest region, whereas most of the North is grassland area. The meat consumed in the South comes mainly from the North, and the palm oil consumed in the North comes mainly from the South. The disruption of this inter-regional trade was felt seriously during the Civil War, when people ate bush rats and insects for protein. The situation could have become more or less permanent if secession had been allowed to succeed.

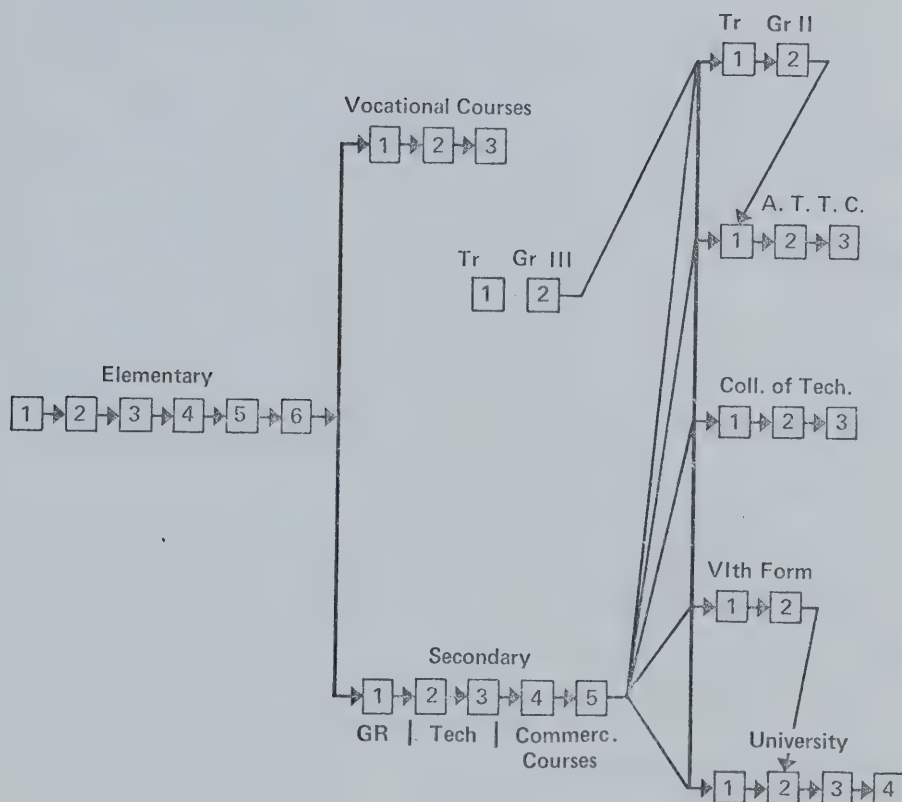
The hundred odd years of "Pax Britannica" in Nigeria had enabled many inter-ethnic contacts to be made. Several inter-ethnic marriages had been contracted and settlements of various ethnic groups outside their original home area had developed. There are "Sabongaris" or strangers' quarters in all the major towns of the North, and every township of Eastern Nigeria has its Hausa quarters. At one time, an Hausa was the mayor of the Eastern Region capital, Enugu, and the Emir of Kano was the Chancellor of the Eastern Nigeria University at Nsukka. These useful associations could have been lost by secession. To statesmen who put the interests of the country above those of the regions,

considerations such as the above could have prevented them from going to extremes, but it appears that the occasion lacked the men. If education is to produce the men in future it is necessary that teachers should have national orientation.

2. Effects of the War on Education

All educational institutions had to close during the Civil War. That meant approximately three years of lack of school. The University of Technology, Port Harcourt which the Eastern Government started in 1967 failed to open after admitting its first batch of students. The Comprehensive School, Port Harcourt, and the University of Nigeria were closed early in the war, as their areas became battle fronts. The Advanced Teacher Training College, Owerri, held its last classes on July 12, 1967, not to open again until April 11, 1970. School buildings were occupied by numerous refugees from the war zones. Many teachers took charge of refugee camps, and were responsible for negotiating for food for the campers from the relief agencies or from the natives who still had some food to spare. School equipment was lost. Buildings were damaged or destroyed and in most cases furniture, books, and science equipment were either looted, broken, or burned. School teenagers found themselves first as militia, then as regular

The Structure of the Educational System, 1973



The numbers in the squares indicate years of schooling.

(Adapted from: Federal Ministry of Education, Statistics of Education in Nigeria, 1971.)

FIG. 4

soldiers. It is not certain how many of them failed to return. The most serious for the post-war society was perhaps that a good many homes were broken by separation and many youths became homeless.

The State Take-Over of Schools

Before the Civil War most of the educational institutions in the State belonged to the agencies other than the Government. For example, of the 296 post-primary institutions, only ten were owned by Government.³⁴ As the war ended, Government decided to take over all schools. Although the general poverty caused by the ravages of the war may have contributed to the decision by Government to take over the schools, the issue of ownership and control of educational institutions was not new. It became a bone of contention after the regionalization of the Nigerian education system. The East Regional Government was worried over the rapid growth of non-viable schools especially at the primary school level. The schools were founded by competing religious denominations and private individuals, but all looked to Government for grant-in aid. As Mr. N.U. Akpan

³⁴ Ministry of Education, Enugu, Directory of Post-Primary Institutions in the East Central State, 1970. Official Document No. 6 of 1971.

Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education, Eastern

Nigeria complained:

Let us recall that the baneful problem of non-viable schools has beset us, and undermined the integrity of our educational system, as a result of the multiplicity of denominational organizations who have tried to establish schools as of right. . . . If we must carry to the logical conclusion the argument that if parents want denominational schools, the State must "see that they get them," it means that any religious denomination which expressed even the mere wish of having denominational schools must be allowed to do so, at public expense, whether or not they have the right type of people to manage those schools, and whether or not such schools are likely to be efficient and viable. Surely, even if Government had unlimited funds--which is not the case--and had nothing to do with it, it would be wrong, irresponsible, and impossible for Government to cherish such a practice.³⁵

The Government, in fact, drafted a new education law which would empower it to take over all the primary schools and entrust the management to Regional and Provincial School Boards,³⁶ but the various industrial strikes of the time caused it to delay action. The take-over was advocated by many commissions and study groups.³⁷

³⁵ Nigerian Outlook, Thursday, December 15, 1965.

³⁶ The Leader, Saturday, December 11, 1965.

³⁷ For example, the following commissions had recommended central control of education, a unified teaching service and uniform standard of educational facilities:

- (a) Dike Report. Op Cit.
- (b) Report of the Conference on the Review of Educational System in Eastern Nigeria, Official Document No.25, 1964 (Ikoku Report).
- (c) Report of the Committee on the Grading of Duty Posts in Voluntary Educational Institutions (Asabia Report).
- (d) Report of the National Joint Negotiating Council for teachers 1964-1965 (Adefarasin Report).
- (e) The National Curriculum Conference 8-12 September 1969.

It was, however, opposed by a few economists.

Among them was Dr. S. A. Aluko who wrote:

The State itself must wonder from where the money to maintain all schools must come if it takes over all schools tomorrow. . . . In 1965, public grants to Voluntary Agency schools in Nigeria amounted to £15.5 million. Full State control will imply that such grants should be of the order of £26 million.³⁸

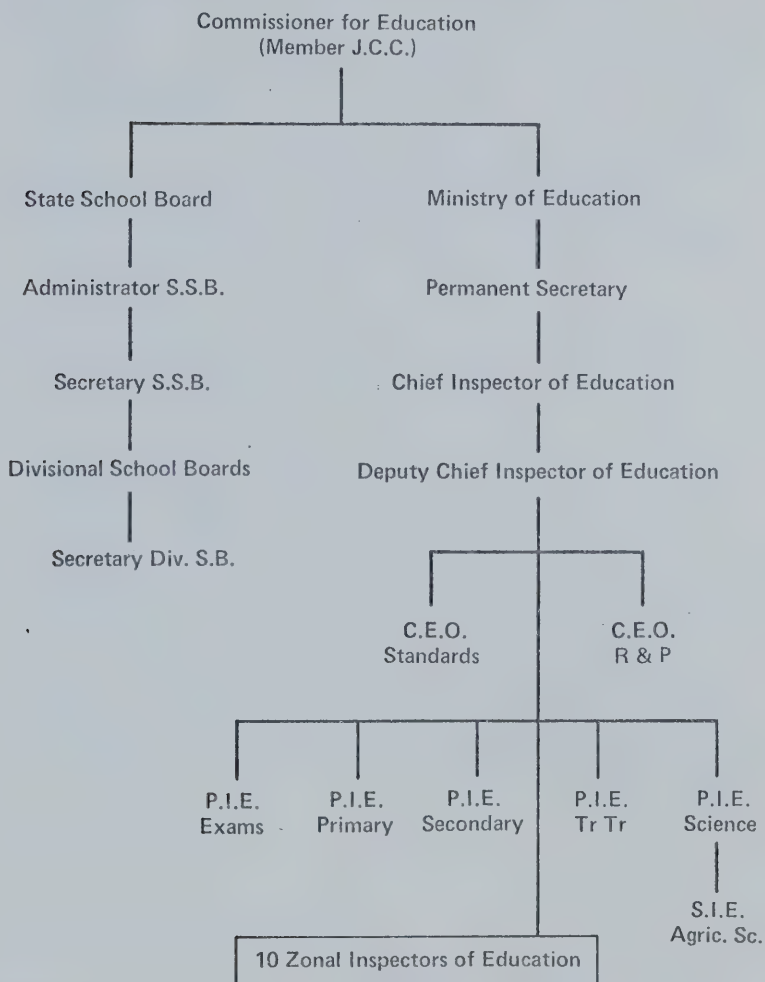
It can be said, however, that the subsequent "oil boom" in the country and foreign aid negated the fears of the economists.

The Government itself gave the following reasons for the assumption of ownership, control, and management of schools:

1. The Government of East Central State of Nigeria is anxious that schools in the State become functional within the shortest possible time after the vast destruction and damage suffered by existing schools in the course of the civil war.
2. It is desirable and necessary that the State takes over all schools within the State, and their control, management, and supervision in order to secure central control and an integrated system of education which will guarantee uniform standards and fair distribution of educational facilities and reduce the cost of running the schools.
3. The take over will ensure that schools which are in effect financed by the people and managed by their accredited

³⁸ Aluko, S. A. "Nationalization of Education." Nigeria Outlook, April, 1966.

Administration of Education, E.C.S. Nigeria, 1973



LEGEND:

- J.C.C. = Joint Consultative Council (Federal)
 C.E.O. = Chief Education Officer
 P.I.E. = Principal Inspector of Education
 S.I.E. = Senior Inspector of Education
 R & P = Research and Planning

FIG. 5

representatives will more readily provide stability, satisfy the people's basic educational and vocational needs, combat sectionalism, religious conflicts, and disloyalty to the cause of a united Nigeria.

4. The purpose of good education is to produce good citizens.
5. The take-over of these schools is for the efficacy, order, stability, and good government of the State particularly in its relationship with other States in the Federation.
6. The aims and objects of the Government cannot be fully achieved under the Education Law of former Eastern Nigeria. . .
7. The proprietorship and management of most schools and institutions in the State have hitherto been in the hands of Voluntary Agencies, mostly Christian Missionary and private individuals, and very recently Local Government Councils, and were thus in the majority run on purely philanthropic basis as institutions of public welfare.
8. The take-over shall further perpetuate such hitherto existing schools as institutions of public welfare and national enlightenment.
9. It is desirable and necessary to make this Edict.³⁹

Post-War School Administration

After the take-over of schools, a State School Board and Divisional School Boards were created to run the schools with the Ministry of Education. The 1970

³⁹ East Central State Public Education Edict, 1970. Edict No. 2 of 1971, p. 1.

Public Education Edict spelled out their Functions as follows:

The Ministry of Education: Section 18:

1. It shall be the duty of the Ministry to develop a planned and integrated educational system for the State and to take all such steps as may be desirable to secure the spiritual, moral, mental, and physical development of the people of the State.
2. In exercise of its functions under this Edict, the Ministry shall ensure that every child of primary school age shall be afforded an opportunity to receive a full primary school education in a school operating under the State System.
3. The Ministry shall ensure that full opportunities are created for adequate post-primary education within the State School System.

Section 30:

1. The Inspectorate Division of the Ministry shall ensure that all schools are regularly inspected to ensure the maintenance of standards.

Section 39:

1. The Ministry shall establish and maintain a register showing the names, qualifications, and other particulars of teachers authorized to teach in the schools in the State.

The Commissioner for Education under the wide powers vested in him by the Edict has the authority to open new schools, to close unauthorized ones, to prescribe school syllabuses, and to provide examinations. He does these through the Ministry of Education.

The State School Board

The State School Board was charged with the following functions:

- (a) Management of all post-primary schools or institutions.
- (b) Appointment, promotion, transfer, and discipline of teachers in post-primary schools.-
- (c) Consultation with and advising the Ministry upon such matters connected with educational policy, theory and practice as it thinks fit and upon any questions referred to it by the Ministry.
- (d) Co-ordination of the activities of the Divisional School Boards.

The Divisional School Boards

The Boards were given the authority to:

- (a) Appoint, promote, transfer, discipline, and "dismiss teachers and other staff required to be employed at or for the purpose of a State primary school.
- (b) Maintain any premises forming part of or used in connection with any such school.
- (c) Acquire on behalf of the Administrator and to obtain equipment, furniture, and other movable property required for the purpose of any such school.
- (d) Provide recreational facilities and provide school meals.
- (e) Collect school fees and other revenue.

Administrative Difficulties

The take-over was beset with administrative problems. Some of the institutions taken over were already

owned by the Government, and their staffs were civil servants who had better service conditions than their counterparts in the Voluntary Agency institutions. They were not certain whether there would be a general levelling up of Voluntary Agency staff or a general levelling down of the civil servants. They were not sure how being employed by the State Ministry of Education and being controlled by the State School Board (a Statutory Corporation) would affect their career prospects.

Some Voluntary Agency tutors suddenly found themselves taking charge of colleges that originally belonged to another denomination. The new Principals had either to swallow their denominational prejudices, if they had any, or evince them at the certain risk of student unrest. When it is remembered how some of the institutions originated partly as centres for producing denominational evangelists, it could be appreciated why it was not easy for a number of students and tutors to make the psychological transition.

Furthermore, the various denominational agencies still laid claim to their property located in school premises but used for evangelization.:

Where land is acquired for evangelistic or missionary purposes and has a Church or other Church establishment, and also a school building or buildings on it, the Church continues to be the owner of such land. . . . Residential houses built

for the staff of the Church, whether occupied by school teachers or not, are not part of the school and are, therefore, not regarded as affected by the Education Edict.⁴⁰

Partly to overcome denominational vested interests and partly to encourage the staff and students to defer to the State School Board, the administration of the institutions was centralized. A "sole administrator" (not to be confused with the Administrator of the State) was appointed to manage all the educational institutions in the State after the original State School Board had been dissolved.⁴¹

As Dr. A. N. Okeke observes:

The State School Boards pass on to Divisional School Boards certain of their responsibilities and functions, but the irony of it is that these Divisional School Boards are not permitted to use any initiative of their own in the discharge of their functions. The provision of school furniture, repairs to buildings, purchase of equipment, books, stationery, and hiring and posting personnel are carried out by the State School Board. . . . The S.S.B. practically administers all the schools in the State from the State Capital. This is rigid centralization, and at best destroys local initiative needed by

⁴¹The head of the Government of East Central State is called "the Administrator." Under him are Commissioner of Works, and so on. The one man on whom fell the responsibility of managing schools and controlling the State School Board was called the Sole Administrator of the State School Board. At the time of writing new members of the State School Board have been appointed. There is no longer a sole administrator.

⁴⁰E.C.S. Education Edict and Church Property. Statement by E.C.S. Church Leaders. The Catholic Church and the Christian Council of Nigeria, 1974.

those nearest to the problem.⁴²

In many cases, the functions of the Commissioner for Education, the Ministry of Education, and the State School Board were not clear to teachers or even to the officials of the Board and of the Ministry. It was not clear whether the Board could advise the State Administrator directly or through the Ministry of Education. It was not clear who should report on civil servants within the State School Board colleges and schools. It was not clear whether the Divisional School Boards were autonomous in the matter of appointment of teachers or whether they derived powers from the State School Board or from the Ministry of Education. The relation of the Zonal Inspectors of Education and the Divisional Education Officers, both of whom were civil servants, was equally vague.⁴³ By 1973, however, some of the uncertainties were being clarified, and changes were constantly being made to meet felt needs.

Post-War Reconstruction⁴⁴

By 1973, a lot of reconstruction work was still

⁴²Okeke, Ambrose N. "School Organization and Administration in Nigerian Schools." ECBS Radio-T.V. Digest, June, 1974.

⁴³cf. Ministry of Education, Enugu. A Rational Approach to Educational Administration Under the Present System. June 1972, pp. 12-25; pp. 64-69.

⁴⁴Ministry of Information, Enugu, The Renaissance. May 27, 1974.

going on, and funds came from the Government, parent teachers associations, and various agencies. The UNESCO and the UNICEF completed the first phase of the reconstruction of the Alvan Ikoku College of Education in June, 1972, and the second phase, which was already in operation was scheduled to be completed in 1975. The World Bank Education Project proposed to aid the financing of the rehabilitation of seven teacher training colleges in the State at a cost of 1.82 million naira and the reconstruction of the University of Nigeria Faculty of Education at a total cost of 33,400 naira.⁴⁵

The former College of Technology which suffered much damage in structure and equipment during the war was re-activated and merged with the former Institute of Management under the new name of Institute of Management and Technology. Similarly, some of the primary and post-primary schools were merged into one "to make for better organization and viability." As a result, commercial schools no longer exist as separate institutions and most secondary schools are gradually becoming comprehensive. Primary schools decreased from 3,628 in 1970 to just over 2,100 in 1973, although the primary school enrolment rose from 914,000 to over 1.2 million during the period. Post-primary institutions decreased from 295 in 1970 to 242 in

⁴⁵UNESCO, Paris. Op. Cit., Vol. I, pp. 21-26.

1973 whilst the intake rose from 77,990 to 84,720. In 1973, the total post-primary school enrollment was 117,000, "representing an increase of over sixty per cent in the pre-war figure for the area constituting the State." The total wage bill for the 35,000 teachers employed in the State School System was 34 million naira and the total appropriation bill for education for the financial year 1973-74 was 44.8 million naira.⁴⁶

The period of reconstruction has revealed certain defects in the educational system particularly in regard to teacher education. To this crucial sector of the front we must now turn.

⁴⁶ One naira is roughly equivalent to one and a half United States dollars. The total recurrent and capital expenditure for 1973-1974 was 142.5 million naira.

CHAPTER IV

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS' COLLEGES:

SOME INSTITUTIONAL PROBLEMS

1. The Early Training Colleges

Initially, teachers were not trained in separate institutions, but as part of primary or secondary schools. In the case of primary schools, the headmasters were responsible for training the pupil teachers under them. The lessons were given after the normal school hours. That was how pupil teachers were prepared for the Government Third Class Teachers' Examination before separate training institutions developed. Some school managers also organized holiday courses for teachers. Such was the practice of St. Mary's School, Onitsha; but the first primary school and training centre in the present East Central State was St. Monica's, Ogbunike, which was founded by the C.M.S. Mission in 1892. It was a primary school for girls, which had training classes for pupil teachers. When Thomas Jesse Jones and Dr. James Aggrey visited the school in 1920, they reported as follows:

The Church Missionary Society Girls' Training School located in the open country ten miles from Onitsha is one of the most interesting and effective schools visited in Africa. The teaching

staff includes two European and six African women. One hundred girls are enrolled, all boarders. Seventy of the pupils are distributed through six standards of regular instruction. The pupil teachers remain for about three years of teaching experience.¹

The first separate institution in the study area for training teachers, was the Awka Training College. It started as a purely catechist training centre at Iyi Enu near Onitsha, but was later moved to Awka and converted to a centre for the training of teacher-catechists. The same visitors reported as follows:

The Awka Training College, located twenty miles from Onitsha, is designed to train teachers and religious workers. At the time of visit, the institution was in the formative period. Though there are three Europeans assigned to the work, only one man was present. The attendance was twenty young men, equally divided into two classes receiving instruction in religious work.²

The St. Mary's School offered in-service training for pupil teachers for periods of up to three months. The aim was to enable the teachers prepare for the government teachers' examination. In 1914, the centre was moved to Igbariam where a two-year training course for pupil teacher was started in addition to the usual in-service courses. The first regular students were twelve in number and the only teacher on the staff was Reverend Father T. J.

¹Jones, Thomas Jesse. Education in Africa. New York: Phelps-Stokes Fund. 1922, p. 160.

²Ibid.

O'Connor. In 1915 the college presented its first batch of students for the Teachers' Third Class Examination. Four of the students were successful. But the First World War caused a serious set back. It was difficult to replace teachers who had left. Money for the maintenance of the institution was not forthcoming from the overseas benefactors. All these forced the college to close down in 1919.³

The Methodist Mission established a secondary school at Uzuakoli in 1923. Three years afterwards a section for the training of teachers was added. The course lasted two years and prepared students for the Third Class Certificate. The staff for both the normal and secondary sections of the college consisted of two Europeans and seven Africans, with Reverend H. L. O. Williams as Principal of both sections.

The Roman Catholic Mission came back into the field of teacher training in 1929, when they established St. Charles Training College, Onitsha, with Reverend Father R. Daly as Principal. The college began with a staff of two Europeans, two African tutors, and a student population of fifty-nine. It grew to become the nucleus of future Roman Catholic training colleges established in Eastern Nigeria, but for the Holy Rosary Training College,

³Ukachi Celestine: Op. Cit., p. 75.

Enugu, that was established by Irish Reverend Sisters in 1936.

The only Government Training College was at Umuahia. This was started in 1929 as a two-year training centre for teachers. In 1931 it was converted to a secondary grammar school. The tendency of the government of the day was to leave teacher education in the hands of the Missions. However, in 1939, a Rural Education centre was started at Umudike, to train teachers of agricultural science for primary schools.

Up until 1939, when the process of regionalization of education began in Nigeria, the institutions for the training of teachers existing in the present East Central State were as follows:

TABLE IX

The Early Training Colleges in East Central State.
Source: The Directory of Post-Primary Institutions in East Central State, Ministry of Education, Enugu, 1970.

Teachers' Training Institution	Male Female	Year Founded	Agency	Remarks
1. St. Monica's Ogbunike	F	1892	C.M.S.	Primary School
2. St. Paul's Awka	M	1904	C.M.S.	
3. St. Mary's Onitsha	M	1913	R.C.M.	Short Courses Only
4. St. Anthony's Igbariam	M	1914	R.C.M.	Closed 1919
5. Methodist College Uzuakoli	M	1926	Methodist	
6. St. Charles Onitsha	M	1929	R.C.M.	
7. Government College Umuahia	M	1929	Government	Training Stopped 1931

TABLE IX (Continued)

Teachers' Training Institution	Male Female	Year Founded	Agency	Remarks
8. Holy Rosary, Enugu	F	1936	R.C.M.	
9. Women's Training Centre, Umuahia	F	1937	Protestant Union	
10. Rural Education Centre, Umudike	M	1939	Government	

It can be seen that there were only seven institutions training teachers, at the outbreak of the First World War, in the present East Central State. Only one of these belonged to Government, the rest were owned by missionary agencies. The institutions were all small in size. In 1920, Awka had only twenty students; in 1939 St. Charles admitted only eighteen students. An idea of the scale of things at this period in the realm of teacher education in Nigeria can be realized from Table X.

The table shows that the average number of students per training college was in every case less than sixty, and there were more teacher training institutions in the Southern Provinces than in the North.

One notable institution of this period was the Yaba Higher College, which was opened in 1934 as a vocational high school. It had departments of agriculture, engineering, medicine, and teacher training. But again,

its impact on the teaching field was very small. Of the 28 students admitted in 1937 in all the departments, none stayed to complete the course. Ten out of the 24 admitted in 1938 withdrew, and in 1939, the number of withdrawals was 23 out of 36 admitted.⁴ The institution was government owned, and served the whole country.

TABLE X

Teacher-Training Institutions in Nigeria
1912-1937 and Their Enrolments.⁵

Region	Year	Number of Institutions	Total Enrolment
Southern Provinces	1912	3	n.a.
	1926	12	265
	1930	13	710
	1937	23	857
Northern Provinces	1912	nil	nil
	1926	1	55
	1937	4	218

n.a. = not available

⁴Fafunwa Babs A., Op. Cit., p. 144.

⁵Compiled from Nduka, Otonti. Western Education and the Nigerian Cultural Background. Ibadan, Oxford University Press 1964, p. 75, Table IV.

During the years of the Second World War, three other training colleges came into being in the East Central State. Two of them, Loretto, Adazi and Holy Child, Afikpo, were established by the Roman Catholic Mission in 1942 and 1945 respectively, for the training of women teachers. The Church Missionary Society established a college at Egbu near Owerri in 1940, but the necessities of the war forced it to close down in 1942.

2. Period of Maximum Expansion

The years following the end of the Second World War saw the greatest expansion in teacher education in the present East Central State. Several factors contributed to the expansion in education and in teacher education, in particular. The end of the war saw the demobilization of soldiers who had served in other parts of the world. Many of them, hampered by inadequate education, could not find worthwhile employment. They began to demand education for themselves and their children, mainly as an avenue of social mobility.

By 1948 it had already become a firm policy of the British Government to prepare their colonial peoples for self-government. India and Burma had actually achieved this status and the Gold Coast and Nigeria were looked upon as runners up. A Colonial Welfare and Development Act was passed by the British Labour Government

in 1945 and under the Act, some £120 million was voted for developing the economic resources of the colonies, including education. Nigeria benefited by the establishment of the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund. The College of Arts, Science, and Technology, which included teacher training in its programme, was established partly with the money from the Fund.

Nigeria's Ten-Year Development Plan was launched a year after the passing of the Act. The Plan made provision for the extension of teacher training facilities, secondary and technical education, rural education and a mass literacy programme. Of the total sum of fifty-five million pounds allocated to the Plan, a little over six million pounds was earmarked for the development of general education, including teacher training.

The post-war period itself launched Nigeria into a period of increased trade and economic prosperity. Nigeria became one of the chief exporters of vegetable oils, rubber, cocoa, and tin to Europe and North America. The following table shows the trend of Nigeria's economy and the expenditure on education in the years immediately following the end of the Second World War. More money was, therefore, available to finance expansion in teacher education.

TABLE XI

Post World War II Economy of Nigeria, 1945-50
and the Expenditure on Education.⁶

Financial Year	Pounds Sterling Revenue	Expenditure on Education	Percentage of Total Expenditure
1945-46	£13,200,428	£ 615,663	5.8
1946-47	14,832,438	861,135	6.1
1947-48	n.a.	1,390,700	8.1
1948-49	n.a.	1,467,744	6.1
1949-50	30,764,681	2,308,530	8.1

n.a. = not available.

⁶Source: Nduka, Otonti. Op. Cit., pp. 69; 77.

Again, the period saw several commissions and conferences on Nigerian education which were to have tremendous effect on the expansion of teacher education in the country as a whole. These were the Phillipson Commission, 1948; the Harlow Commission, 1949; the Cambridge Conference, 1952, and the Ashby Commission, 1960.

The Phillipson Commission reviewed the system of grants-in-aid paid to voluntary agencies and recommended an increase in the grants paid to teacher training colleges. The recommendations were incorporated into the then Eastern Nigeria Education Law. Teacher training institutions recognized for grants came to include not only the

Elementary and Higher Elementary colleges, but also preliminary teachers' training centres.⁷ The preliminary training centre courses lasted one year.

The Harlow Commission was appointed by the Federal Government to study and report on the need for establishing colleges or a college of technical education. The report of the Commission led to the establishment of the Nigeria College of Arts, Science, and Technology with branches in Ibadan, Zaria, and Enugu (East Central State). The teacher education provided at the college was affiliated to the University of London Institute of Education, and the Physical Education course to the University of Leeds.

As a result of the reports submitted by study groups financed by the Nuffield Foundation, a conference of African educationists met in Cambridge from September 8 to 20, 1952; under the chairmanship of Dr. G. B. Jeffrey, Director of the University of London Institute of Education. The conference was divided into five groups: A; B; C; D; and E. Group C was concerned with the teaching profession. Its recommendations which affected the progress of teacher education in what is now East Central State include:

- (a) For primary teaching, "the eventual aim should certainly be recruitment from the secondary schools." This was achieved in the State ten

⁷The grant-in aid Regulations No. 21 stated, "A grant may be paid to an educational agency in aid of a class or classes especially approved by the Minister for

years later. Teachers who had completed full secondary school course before their entry into training colleges were known as "pivotal" teachers.

- (b) It commended the agricultural courses given at Umudike. The institution was greatly expanded within this period.
- (c) Its recommendation of a minimum enrolment of 100 students for training colleges was an improvement on the existing practice.

On the approach to independence Nigeria felt that one of its pressing problems was the acute shortage of intermediate and high level manpower. A commission under Sir Eric Ashby was appointed to "conduct an investigation into Nigeria's needs in the field of post-school certificate and Higher Education over the next twenty years," that is, 1960-1980.

In the area of teacher education, the Commission reported on the need for upgrading primary and secondary school teachers, the supply of teachers over the next ten years, and the need to secure stability in the teaching profession. The Report led to expansion in teacher training in general, and specifically to the establishment of the Advanced Teacher Training College, Owerri, for the

Footnote 7 continued:

the preliminary training of boys and girls in preparation for their entry into the service as uncertificated and vocational teachers.

training of teachers for the junior forms of secondary schools. It also led to the inauguration of the B.A. (Ed.) degree in the University of Nigeria, Nsukka in 1962. This latter innovation was hailed as possibly the first of its kind in Africa, south of the Sahara and north of the Limpopo.⁸

All these commissions and conferences together with the local demand for schools had the cumulative effect of expansion in the number of teacher training institutions in the present East Central State. In 1947 there were only nine teacher training colleges of all types. All but one belonged to the missions. The following year saw the re-organization of primary schools into two types: junior primary to provide for grades one to four, and the senior primary for grades five to eight. Many villages clamoured for schools, and the missions responded by starting junior primary schools in those areas. To staff the schools, more teachers had to be trained. The number of training colleges grew by leaps and bounds. Ten years later, the number had increased from nine to ninety-nine and in 1961 it reached an all-time record of 103, all in the present East Central State. The preparation for the launching of Universal Primary Education

⁸Ukeje, B. O. Op. Cit., p. 97.

in 1957 gave the greatest impetus to the opening of junior primary schools and to the expansion in teacher training. The 1957 training colleges were distributed as follows:

TABLE XII⁹
Distribution of Training Colleges in
in East Central State in 1957
by Type and Proprietorship

Agency	P.T.C.	E.T.C.	H.E.T.C.	R.E.C.	Totals
Government	-	1	1	1	3
Missions	25	50	19	-	94
Local Councils	-	1	1	-	2
Totals	25	52	21	1	99

P.T.C. = Preliminary Training Centre. (one year post-primary)

E.T.C. = Elementary Training Centre. (two years post-primary)

H.E.T.C. = Higher Elementary Teachers College.

R.E.C. = Rural Education Centre.

The total number of training colleges in the whole of Eastern Nigeria that year was 152, with a total student enrolment of 8,927. On this figure, it can be estimated that there were in East Central State about 6,000 students in training. In 1961 there were; P.T.C. 20; E.T.C. 53; H.E.T.C. 29; and R.E.C. 1; totalling 103 with an enrolment of approximately 8,000 students. Strangely enough, there

⁹Compiled from: Ministry of Education, Enugu, Annual Report, 1957, pp. 35-40.

were only 96 graduate teachers in the East Central State training colleges and the student-staff ratio had increased from 13.1 in 1957 to 17.1 in 1961.¹⁰

Within this period emerged a new type of agency in the teacher training milieu, the County Councils, which were organized in 1954. The three County Council training colleges were:

1. Awgu County Training College, via Enugu.
2. Aba County Council Training College, Nsulu Mbawsi.
3. Ishielu County Council Training College, Abakaliki.

But the proliferation of teacher training institutions soon ran into trouble.

3. Period of Contraction and Higher Qualifications

The great expansion in teacher training had been accompanied by dilution of the quality of the teaching cadre. By 1962 it was already becoming clear that there was the danger of over-production of poorly qualified teachers. The Annual Report of that year noted that E.T.C. and P.T.C. trained teachers were already finding it difficult to get a teaching appointment.¹¹ The probationary training centres which catered for these students were struck off the list of grant-aided

¹⁰cf. Ministry of Education, Enugu, Annual Report 1961, T33, Table XX.

¹¹ Ministry of Education, Enugu, Annual Report, 1962, p. 28.

institutions and Government decided upon a gradual phasing out of the Grade III or E.T.C. teachers' colleges. The year 1963 saw the last intake of teachers into the Grade III colleges. At the same time an additional year of study was added to the courses at the Rural Education Centre, Umudike, a vocational teachers' department was started at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, and an Advanced Teacher Training College was established at Owerri. The establishment of this institution was the most important breakthrough in the qualitative improvement of teacher education in the State.

The need for the establishment of a three-year post-secondary teachers' college in the eastern States had long been realized. The Cambridge Conference expressed the desire for "a three-year training course after school certificate which gave the student a position in the teaching world not far behind that of a graduate."¹² As already indicated, the Ashby Report¹³ specifically recommended that the staffing of a secondary school should be 50 per cent graduate and 50 per cent of the type of teachers mentioned above. For the latter, Ashby used the term "well-qualified non-graduate teachers." The Dike Report recommended that an Eastern Region College for teachers

¹² Jeffrey Report, Op. Cit., p. 39.

¹³ Ashby Report, Op. Cit., p. 81.

at a post-secondary level be established at Enugu."¹⁴

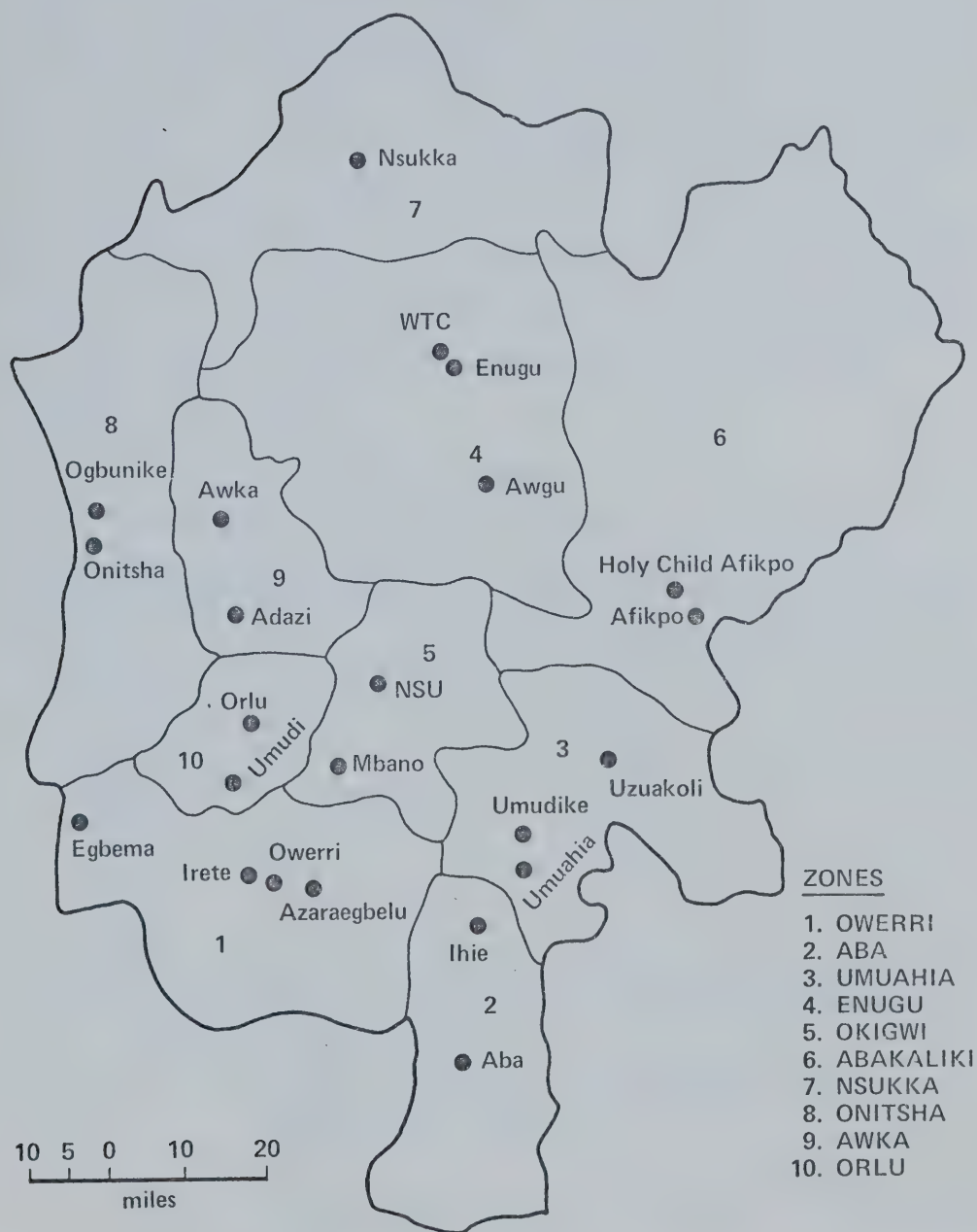
The plan met the approval of international agencies and governments. The UNESCO made a five-year grant of 374,390 pounds to the college for recurrent costs and in addition undertook to send fifteen specialists as members of the staff. The United Kingdom Government made a grant of 450,000 pounds to cover capital costs and sent a specialist in the teaching of English to the College Department of English.¹⁵ The college formally started lectures on May 6, 1963, but it was not sited at Enugu, as the Dike Report had recommended but at Owerri. The major reason was that the Shell BP Oil Company had left their headquarters at Owerri for Port Harcourt. The Owerri camp, consisting of 112 residential quarters, a swimming pool, an assembly hall, and several offices, was bought by the Eastern Nigeria Government and approved as a place to start the college. At the successful completion of their course, the students were awarded the Nigeria Certificate in Education (N.C.E.). The road to better training and higher qualifications was now open to teachers. The first students of the B.A. (Ed.) degree of the University of Nigeria, 28 in number, graduated in 1964. In 1972, five students of the Faculty graduated M.A. (Education).

¹⁴Dike Report, Op. Cit., p. 86.

¹⁵Source: Ministry of Education, Enugu, Official Document No. 5 of 1965.

E.C.S. EDUCATION ZONES

(Source: Ministry of Education, Enugu, 1973)



● Position of Training Colleges

FIG. 6

As a result of the recognition of the need for quality in the teaching field, Government decided to concentrate its resources on the improvement of a more limited number of training colleges. Table XIII reveals the progress made up to 1973 in the Government effort to promote quality and concentrate resources by reducing the number of training colleges. The post-war plan was to reconstruct and re-equip only ten teacher training colleges in the East Central State,¹⁶ and the Government is still working towards this end.

TABLE XIII
The Number of Teachers' Colleges in the Present
East Central State in Various Years (1963-1973)

Year	Number of Teachers' Colleges
1963	72
1964	71
1965	52
1966	n.a.
1967	n.a.
1968	n.a.
1969	n.a.
1970	44
1971	45
1972	45
1973	23

n.a. = Not available. Schools did not function during the war years (1967-1969).

- Sources: i) Federal Ministry of Education, Lagos. Statistical Digest, 1966, T2.8.
ii) Ministry of Education, Enugu, Annual Report, 1970.
iii) Research and Planning, Ministry of Education, Enugu.

¹⁶ UNESCO, Paris. Education in Nigeria, Op. Cit., Vol. I, p. 76. By way of comparison, Table XIV gives the number of Grade II teachers' colleges in the States of the Federation.

TABLE XIV

The Number of Grade II Teachers' Colleges in the Various States of Nigeria Between 1968 and 1970

State	Year	Number of Grade II Colleges	Enrolment	Average Size
Benue Plateau	1969	8	2,201	275
East Central	1970	41	4,611	112
Kano	1970	7	2,352	336
Kwara	1970	10	2,655	265
Lagos	1969	5	628	125
Mid-Western	1968	10	1,733	173
North-Central	1969	8	2,125	265
North-Eastern	1969	13	3,311	254
North-Western	1970	10	3,129	313
Rivers	1970	3	570	190
South-Eastern	1969	11	1,542	140
Western	1968	20	5,005	250

Source: UNESCO, Paris, Op Cit. Vol. II, Annex 50.

The average size for East Central State Colleges was the least during the period.

4. Recommendations re Type, Number, and Size

The Dike Report had recommended "parallel secondary schools" for primary school teachers.¹⁷ The recommendation was not implemented possibly because of the large number of the institutions involved and the additional expenditure it

¹⁷Dike Report. Op. Cit., p. 85

would entail. By 1973, however, the State had done away with recruiting teacher trainees from primary school leavers, unlike in the Northern States where the general practice was to train primary school leavers for five years for teaching appointment. On the surface, there are advantages and disadvantages in following either plan. Those trained for five years are more likely to acquire interest in teaching than those trained for shorter periods. On the other hand, because of the low level of their general education on entry, the five-year course is often more academic than professional and quite a number of students regard it as a preparation for further studies, which may not necessarily lead to teaching. It is certainly cheaper to train a student for one year than to maintain him for five years. The one-year course recommends itself to the State because of the already heavy cost of education to the Government. The State should continue to recruit from the secondary schools. The students would be given one-year professional training followed by one-year internship or supervised teaching. The output of the secondary schools annually is around 20,000. There are indications that the required number of trainees can be recruited from secondary school leavers since salaries for teachers are now higher than in the civil service generally, alternative employment avenues are not numerous, and school fees for the Sixth Form have been raised. Even if some initial

difficulty is experienced in getting the number of trainees required, the solution of the problem appears to lie in the expansion of existing secondary schools instead of running "parallel" ones.

As already indicated, the number of primary school teachers in training in 1973 was roughly 5,500. The Government's plan to develop ten Grade II teachers' colleges means in effect an average of 550 students per college. The number of teachers in training in 1973 was meant to staff existing schools adequately by replacing untrained teachers and teacher wastage. Table XV shows that 22 per cent or a total of 7,514 teachers in primary schools were untrained. Since the training courses lasted two years, the untrained teachers would be replaced in a relatively short time, and there would have been little or no need to increase the intake into the colleges. But the projected Universal Primary Education will create additional need for trained teachers. Since there are roughly one million elementary school pupils in the State (Table III) and it is estimated that this represents about 80 per cent of the potential, as many as 40,000 new pupils may enrol when the U.P.E. begins. Since the State's approved teacher-pupil ratio is 1:40, this could mean an immediate requirement of 1,000 additional trained teachers. It is therefore reasonable to expect expansion in the number of teachers in training. It is suggested that this expansion should not

repeat the previous experience of a multiplicity of unviable teachers' institutions, but should be expansion in the size of the accepted ten teachers' colleges. Although Sarane S. Boocock concludes her review of researches done on the effect of size of schools by saying, "size per se does not seem to affect academic performance directly,"¹⁸ there are other advantages which could be derived from having larger teacher training colleges:

1. The larger colleges will be more economical to run.
2. It will be easier to provide better facilities for the students and the teachers.
3. The problem of communication and co-ordination will be made simpler.
4. It will be easier to attract better quality teachers to such institutions.
5. It will be easier for the institution to build up a public image.

¹⁸Boocock, Sarane S. An Introduction to the Sociology of Learning. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972.

TABLE XV

Elementary School Teachers in E.C.S. Schools, 1973

Grade	Number of Teachers	Percentage Distribution	Group
Grade I and Higher	638	1.9	ONE
Grade II A	3,354	10.0	
Grade II	17,383	51.6	
Grade III	2,222	6.6	
Grade II C.T.R.	2,373	7.1	
Grade III C.T.R.	171	0.5	
C/S	995	3.0	TWO
C	4,286	12.7	
H.S.C. and WASC	1,207	3.5	
Others	1,026	3.1	
Total	33,655	100.0	

Source: Ministry of Education, Research and Planning,
Enugu (Unpublished).

Group One = Trained teachers

Group Two = Untrained teachers

Grade II A = Two-year training after full secondary

C.T.R. = Trained but not certificated

C/S = Experienced untrained teacher

C = Untrained registered teacher

H.S.C. = Higher School Certificate

WASC = West African School Certificate.

The secondary schools themselves are also much in need of qualified teachers. Table XVI gives the grades and qualifications of teachers employed in the secondary schools in 1970. The accepted minimum qualification for teaching in secondary schools is the teachers' Grade I certificate, but most of the teachers or roughly 54 per cent had less than this qualification.

TABLE XVI
Categories of Teachers in Secondary, Grammar
Technical Schools, East Central State, 1970

Grade of Teacher	Number	Percentage of Total
Graduates with Teaching Qualification	651	21.7
Graduates without Teaching Qualification	286	9.5
N.C.E. Holders	308	10.3
Grade I Teachers	141	4.7
Grade II Teachers	240	8.0
Grade II A Teachers	250	8.3
Grade II C.T.R.	5	0.2
Grade III C.T.R.	1	0.0
H.S.C. or Equivalent	618	20.6
WASC	426	14.2
Secondary Class IV	3	0.1
Vocational teachers	71	2.4
Total	3,000	100.0

Source: Ministry of Education, Planning and Research Division, Enugu. Quoted from Igwe, S. Okoronkwo. A Study of the Supply, the Quality, and the Demand for Secondary-Technical School Teachers in East Central State. M.A. Thesis. Unpublished. UNN. 1972, p. 90.

The figures do not include the requirements of the elementary training colleges, which are shown in Table XX. The Nigerian National Conference on Education held in 1969, recommended that the long-term goal should be to make all teachers have the minimum qualification of NCE. All these point to the need for the Alvan Ikoku College of Education and the University of Nigeria Faculty of Education to increase their intake so that both can meet the needs of the secondary schools. The output of the two institutions in 1972 was 157 and 50 respectively.

In the present circumstances, it is difficult to justify the continued existence of the Rural centre, Umudike, as a separate teacher training college. Experience has shown that teaching agriculture in the primary school has not produced the desired effect, namely to train children who would choose farming as a career. The same is true of secondary school leavers in the State. As Callaway rightly observes:

The fact is that school leavers' views of their vocation in life are determined largely by what happens outside the school, in the society, and the economy. As long as they see in farming a poor and stunted life, they will seek for what seem to them the better opportunities of the cities. What is wanted, first of all, is a really effective general policy towards agriculture which would demonstrate that improved farming can bring as much money and as rewarding a life as other occupations.¹⁹

¹⁹ Callaway, Archibald, "Unemployment Among African School Leavers," in Education and Nation Building in Africa (eds.) Cowan, Gray L. et al, London, Praeger, p. 246.

Philip J. Foster expressed the ideas more forcefully:

Agricultural education of farmers must include not only instruction in new techniques but also information on new and profitable cash crops and potential local markets. Such agricultural education must be directed towards the farmer himself and not towards school pupils.

.
The schools will detach children from the rural environment largely irrespective of what they teach.²⁰

A few hundred metres away from the Rural Education Centre is the Federal Government Agricultural School that trains extension and research workers at the post-secondary level. It is more realistic to produce skilled agricultural workers or farmers through this school which is well-funded by the Federal Government and International Agencies than through a separate teachers institution such as the Rural Education Centre. An alternative is the University Faculty of Agriculture.

The Institute of Management and Technology proposed in 1973 to start a department of education to train teachers of technical and commercial subjects. This would be just one of the several departments of the college.²¹ It would in fact duplicate the work done either at the Faculty of Education of the University of Nigeria or proposed at the

²⁰Foster, Philip J. "The Vocational School Fallacy in Development Planning," in Education and Economic Development (eds.) Anderson, Arnold C. and Bowman, Mary Jean. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1966, pp. 142-166.

²¹Source: Office of the Rector, 1973.

Alvan Ikoku College of Education. It is even doubtful that the institute can carry out the teacher education aspect adequately in addition to its heavily industrial and market-oriented programme. Teacher education should be left to institutions specializing in that field.

In summary, it is recommended that the teachers for the State schools should be trained in:

1. The University Faculty of Education.
2. The Alvan Ikoku College of Education.
3. The Ten Grade Two training colleges.

The Grade II colleges might be called Teachers' High Schools to differentiate them from the branches of the University that go by the name college.

The Physical Plant

The most conspicuous difficulty facing the teachers' colleges today is the inadequacy of the buildings and facilities, due to the effects of the Civil War, but it must not be assumed that the provision was adequate before the war.

Most of the teachers' colleges belonged to mission agencies and each agency planned its buildings according to its resources. The first training centres

were wattle and daub buildings roofed with mats. That was the type of building which Dr. Aggrey and his group saw at Ogbunike in 1920, about which they reported as follows:

The school plant is simple but comfortable. The dormitories are rows of one-room structures, made of rich brown clay, polished within and without until they glisten in the sun.²²

The walls were regularly scrubbed by the students, hence their bright appearance. Those were the days of open classrooms and lessons under tree sheds and blackboards on easels. Later, however, building with corrugated iron and cement became the common practice. The Government schools were built that way, and the missions soon followed. Furthermore, in 1926, the Government Education Regulations required Voluntary Agencies to submit the plans of their buildings before permission could be granted for the opening of new institutions.

From the nineteen-thirties, all teachers' colleges in the State have had some common building features. These include partitioned classrooms, a chapel, long open dormitories, and a dining hall. There were staff quarters, but often the only offices available were those of the Principal. Attempts were made to start college libraries and subject

²²Jones, Thomas Jesse. Op. Cit.

rooms. The teachers' college, Irete, had a science laboratory comparable in equipment to those found in secondary schools, and St. Charles' College had a separate geography room and a music room.

The dormitories had single beds placed side by side and covered with mosquito nets. There were single lockers for each student's books. In every case, there was ample playground. Colleges like St. Charles, Onitsha, owned three soccer pitches, but indoor games were not well developed. There were no gymnasias. Some games like Rugby football, Badminton, and Hockey played in secondary schools, were rare in the teachers' colleges. The Advanced Teacher Training College had facilities for these and for swimming, and introduced them early in its programme.

Although television service was available in Eastern Nigeria, the training colleges did not own sets for school use, and although the Modern Aids Centre at Enugu prepared programmes for school broadcasts, the training colleges had no radio sets for monitoring the broadcasts and incorporating them in their methods courses. Rarely were there projectors for slides and films in the GRade II and III teachers' colleges. As there was much dependence upon the textbook, the need for the use of audio visual aids was not much felt. When on teaching practice, however, students were required to prepare some apparatus. They invariably copied the illustrations they found in the

textbooks onto cartridge paper and cardboard for classroom display. As the colleges did not have a resource centre or room, the apparatus was generally done with after the teaching was over.

Accommodation was generally satisfactory in terms of space, for the small number of students in the training colleges, but has become worse since the war, because a number of Grade II teachers' colleges were merged without provision for additional accommodation for staff and students.

The Civil War caused a lot of damage. "In some cases such as St. Mark's College, Nibo, in Njikoka Division, the buildings were completely wrecked, while in other war-affected areas, the damage varied from part destruction to loss of equipment and furniture."²³ The table below gives details of the condition of the physical plant of the Grade II teachers' colleges as they were in 1973.

TABLE XVII

The Physical Plant of the Grade II Teachers'
Colleges in E.C. State in 1973 and
the Amount of Rehabilitation Required

Facilities	A	B	C
1. Site in Hectares	473	34	19
2. Classrooms	114	45	2
3. Laboratories	8	6	7

²³Ministry of Education, Enugu. Annual Report
1970, p. 15.

TABLE XVII (continued)

Facilities	A	B	C
4. Library Rooms	6	9	1
5. Offices	30	18	7
6. Assembly Hall	8	5	2
7. Workshops	20	8	8
8. Dormitories	51	41	8
9. Lavatory Cubicles	42	44	84
10. Dining Hall	13	7	4
11. Kitchen	15	7	4
12. Teachers' Quarters	86	53	28
13. Other Buildings	3	44	23
14. Playgrounds	62	26	11
15. Light (N) 6	(K) 12	(P) 3	
16. Water Supply (PP) 9	(S) 11	(W) 1	
17. Access Road (M) 21	(PT) -	-	

Source: Research and Planning, Ministry of
Education. Enugu. (Unpublished).

A = Existing in good condition.

B = Facilities requiring rehabilitation at cost of less than 25 per cent of new one.

C = Facilities requiring rehabilitation at cost of over 50 per cent of new one.

(N) = Nigeria Electricity Production Authority.

(K) = Kerosine Lamp.

(P) = Private Electric Plant.

(PP) = Pipe-borne.

(S) = Stream.

(W) = Well.

(M) = Motorable.

(PT) = Path (not used by cars.)

In future, it would be advisable to have a Department of School Architecture attached to the Ministry of Education to prepare standard plans to meet the requirements of teachers' colleges. A specialist branch like that would be able to provide variety in design and larger study rooms. There is need for staff quarters for all staff in the teachers' colleges in rural areas, and for all administration staff in the urban areas.

Reconstruction should not mean mere replacement of blocks, but an opportunity to think anew the educational needs of the teachers' colleges and the facilities required. Buildings should include dispensaries, theatres, repair workshops, resource centres, conference rooms, facilities for indoor games and special laboratories for science, home economics, and social studies. The halls and libraries should be of such a size that they can be used by a fairly large number of people at once, and the building plans should take the needs of the local community into account, for a teachers' college in a developing area should also be a community centre. The library should be adequately stocked with reference books, textbooks, and journals. The library, the resource centre, and the conference hall for the in-service training of teachers could form a complex. Audio-visual aids such as radio, tape-recorders, portable video-tapes and television should not be beyond the capacity of a training college to possess and use in teaching.

Thus, at the time of reconstruction, the training colleges require more and not less of the proportion of the expenditure on education, since in fact they form the key to the quality of the whole educational system. This proportion has rather fallen very low in recent years as the following table shows:

TABLE XVIII

Amount and Percentage of Expenditure on
Teachers' Colleges for the Years
1961, 1962, and 1971²⁴

Year	(a)	(b)	Percentages of (b)
	Expenditure on Education	Expenditure on Teacher Training	
1960-61	£6,217,816	£621,395	9.9
1961-62	7,875,790	688,335	8.7
1970-71	12,177,000	655,300	5.3

In contrast, Kano State and North Central State spent 15.1 and 13.2 per cent of their education expenditure respectively on teacher education in 1970-71.²⁵

In general, for the replanning of the physical plant of the teachers' colleges to be successful, the planners should look at least a decade ahead. The replanning should, in fact, involve the staff of the teachers' colleges themselves.

²⁴Sources: Ministry of Education, Enugu, Annual Reports 1961, 1962.

UNESCO, Paris. Education in Nigeria. Op. Cit. Annex 96.

²⁵Ibid.

3. Staffing

It has always been difficult to staff the teachers' colleges adequately. The first tutors were Europeans, who were quite few in number and needed to go home on leave every two or three years. For quite a long time, there were no university-trained African teachers available. Indeed, it was not until 1938 that the Nigeria Government made the first scholarship award for a full degree course overseas.²⁶ The Government thought that the best way to provide African assistants required in post-primary institutions was to institute examinations for practising elementary school teachers. Consequently, those teachers who gained the Second Class and First Class Government Certificates were employed to teach the special subjects they passed. Thus, a First Class Master in History would teach the subject up to the final class of the teachers' college or post-primary institution.

The Yaba Higher College, which was established in 1934 aimed, among other things, to produce teachers who could be employed as assistant masters in post-primary schools. But the students of the college were very few in number and never made any serious impact in the teaching field. In 1948 the students were sent to Ibadan as the pioneer undergraduates of the University College.

²⁶Nduka, Otonti. Op. Cit., p. 51.

In the place of the Yaba Higher College, came in 1952, the Nigeria College of Arts, Science, and Technology with branches in Zaria, Ibadan, and Enugu. The student enrolment in the Enugu Branch between 1955 and 1960 was as follows:

TABLE XIX

Student Enrolment at Enugu Branch of
Nigerian College of
Arts, Science, and Technology. 1955-1960²⁷

Year	Students
1955-56	32
1956-57	99
1957-58	148
1958-59	204
1959-60	241

The courses offered included mining, surveying, arts, and science. Like the Yaba Higher College, the students were few, their impact in staffing the teachers' colleges was negligible and it was later absorbed by the University of Nigeria. The real impact was made after Independence, when the new universities developed fairly strong Faculties of Education, when the Advanced Teachers' Colleges were established, and when Government stepped up scholarship awards for teaching in post-primary institutions.

²⁷Source: Fafunwa, Babs A. Op. Cit., p. 178

The table below indicates that the number of graduates and qualified teachers in the training colleges has been increasing.

TABLE XX

The Staff of Teachers' Colleges
in East Central State
1961, 1962, 1970, 1971

Source: Government Annual Reports²⁸

Post-Primary Teachers' College Staff				
Year	Qualification	Number	Percentage	Remarks
1961	Graduate Teachers	96	19.3	Qualified
	N.C.E.	-	-	Qualified
	Grade I Teachers	150	30.7	Qualified
	Grade II Teachers	197	40.3	U. Q.
	Grade III Teachers	33	7.0	U. Q.
	Untrained Teachers	13	2.7	U. Q.
Totals		357	100.0	
1962	Graduate Teachers	109	23.2	Qualified
	N.C.E.	-	-	Qualified
	Grade I Teachers	147	31.2	Qualified
	Grade II Teachers	192	40.8	U. Q.
	Grade III Teachers	10	2.2	U. Q.
	Others	12	2.6	U. Q.
Totals		470	100.0	
1970	Graduate Teachers	131	40.6	Qualified
	N.C.E.	119	36.8	Qualified
	Grade I Teachers	44	13.6	Qualified
	Grade II Teachers	24	7.5	U. Q.
	Grade III Teachers	-	-	U. Q.
	Others	5	1.5	U. Q.
Totals		323	100.0	

TABLE XX (Continued)

Post-Primary Teachers' College Staff				
Year	Qualifications	Number	Percentage	Remarks
1971	Graduate Teachers	148	41	Qualified
	N.C.E.	116	33	Qualified
	Grade I Teachers	48	13	Qualified
	Grade II Teachers	28	8	Not Qualified
	Others	17	5	Not Qualified
Totals		357	100.0	
1973 ²⁹	Graduate Teachers	95	35	
	Well Qualified Teachers	146	54	
	Non-Qualified Teachers	30	11	
Totals		271	100.0	

²⁸ Although the State was created later, the figures for 1961 and 1962 refer strictly to the teachers' Colleges within the present East Central State.

U. Q. = not qualified. The minimum qualification required was the Teachers' Grade I Certificate.

²⁹ Unpublished. Collected from Principals of the Colleges.

The increase in number of graduates would have been greater but for the war. The war saw the exit of expatriate staff. There was only one expatriate in the Grade II teachers' colleges in 1971. The staff of the Advanced Teachers' College was reduced from 52 pre-war to 36 in 1970, although it got back expatriate staff from UNESCO, British Council, and the French Government. Even so, the Mathematics, History, Chemistry, and Physical Education Departments were for many months left with one lecturer each. The period of rehabilitation up to 1973, was accompanied by many financial and administrative problems. There were delays in the payment of teachers' salaries and in the re-absorption of teachers into the education system. This caused a good many qualified teachers to seek employment in other States. Furthermore, some Northern States offered inducements to teachers joining their teaching service. Again, the Federal Government participation in education was expanding rapidly. It established over twenty secondary schools in various parts of the country within a space of three years. It also established a corps of Inspectors for schools in all parts of the Federation. These Federal establishments needed high level manpower and a good many of them came from the East Central State. These account for the low figures for the number of graduates in 1973.

There has been a fairly steady decrease in the number of unqualified and untrained teachers in the training colleges. As the 1962 Annual Report put it, "yearly, the colleges lose a number of their non-graduate staff who go to the universities to obtain higher qualifications." A number of them went back to teaching after graduation, with better salaries and conditions of service. The table below shows the salaries of a Grade II teacher before and after graduation. or obtaining a university degree.

TABLE XXI

Salaries of Grade II Teachers and Graduates
with Grade II Teachers' Certificates

Year		Grade II Teacher	Graduate Grade II Teacher
1930	³⁰	£ 40	?
1940	³¹	54	£480
1950	³²	96	600
1960	³³	180	762
1970	³⁴	204	804

Sources: Ministry of Education, Lagos.

³⁰ Nigeria Education Regulations, 1926.

³¹ Revised, 1939.

³² Phillipson Report, 1948

³³ Mbanefo Report, 1960.

³⁴ Elwood Report, 1966.

In addition, teachers in training colleges received, up to 1967, responsibility allowances in addition to their salaries.

TABLE XXII ³⁵

Allowances Paid to Teachers in
Training Colleges, 1967

Office	Allowance Per Annum
Principal	£75
Vice-Principal	25
Senior Staff with Duties	15
Graduate Science Teacher	120

But the total staffing situation showed deterioration between 1970 and 1973 when the student-staff ratios are compared.

TABLE XXIII

Staff-Student Ratios, 1970, 1971, 1973

Year	Number of ³⁶ Teachers	Number of Students	Ratio
1970	323	4,611	14.2
1971	357	5,545	15.3
1973 ³⁷	271	5,576	20.6

³⁵Source: Eastern Nigeria Education Handbook, 1964.

³⁶Source: Op. Cit.

³⁷Source: Op. Cit., (Unpublished.)

In the teachers' colleges where the staff are expected to supervise teaching practice and mark individual notes of lessons, the staff-student ratio should perhaps not rise above 1:15. In the South-Eastern State it was 1:15.7 in 1970 and in Lagos State 1:11.1 that year.³⁸ The ideal thing is to staff training colleges exclusively with graduates with teachers' qualifications. The B.Ed. degree programme appears to be most suitable for this purpose. The Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, awards this degree to students who are prepared specifically for the post-primary teachers' colleges. Among other things, the students specialize in elementary school methodology, curriculum, and administration. Furthermore, many of the graduates now teaching in the teachers' colleges require re-training in those fields. The Alvan Ikoku College of Education could mount a special programme for the "Teachers' High Schools." Staffing the "Teachers' Colleges" should follow the university pattern, and with proper co-ordination, it should be possible for staff of the training colleges to be temporarily seconded to the University Faculty of Education and vice versa.

5. Co-Ordination of the Teachers' Institutions

The Need

Before Independence³⁹ the separate teachers'

³⁸ Source: UNESCO, Paris. Op. Cit., Annex 51.

³⁹ Nigeria became independent on October 1, 1960.

colleges had not much communication among themselves. They all looked separately to the Government for grants to implement their programmes. Each agency decided on the number of students to admit each year, its decision being based on the needs of its own schools. There was no statutory board specifically responsible for training colleges, although the Ministry of Education had an Inspector for teacher training. The Inspector was concerned with the practical teaching examination of students, and when he found he had too many candidates, he selected a panel of Principals of training colleges to assist him. This happened in 1957 and many times after that year.⁴⁰

The training colleges prepared teachers for primary schools.

After Independence came two institutions for the training of teachers for secondary schools, the Advanced Teacher Training College, Owerri, and the Faculty of Education, University of Nigeria. From the beginning, the Advanced Teacher Training College and the University worked out a system of collaboration by which the university guaranteed the programme of the college and awarded the final certificates; although the institution was managed directly by the Ministry of Education. There

⁴⁰Ministry of Education, Enugu. Annual Report, 1967, p. 21.

was, however, no such collaboration between the University or the Advanced Teachers' Colleges and the Grade II training college that prepared teachers for primary schools. The university did start an Institute of Education which would co-ordinate the work of all training colleges in the area. It was at an incipient stage before the Civil War started. Because of lack of co-ordinated planning of teacher education, students who had completed two years teacher training after a full secondary school course took the same three years at the Advanced Teachers' College as students who had had no previous teacher education but had simply completed secondary education successfully. In the same way, students who passed out of the Advanced Teachers' College after three years of teacher education, were required to take the same length of time to obtain the B.A. (Ed.) as students coming straight from the Higher School with no previous teacher training.

Since the end of the Civil War, another institution for the training of teachers has come into being. It is the Department of Education of the Institute of Management and Technology, Enugu. The Institute is autonomous and plans its courses on its own. As far back as 1966 approval was given by the Ministry of Education for starting a Department of Commerce at the Advanced Teacher Training College. This has yet to be

implemented, but it could be a duplication of courses already offered at the Institute of Management and Technology. The need for co-ordination of teacher education in the State is therefore apparent.

Recommendation re Co-Ordination

It is envisaged that teacher education institutions will be autonomous, each with its governing board, staff councils and student unions. A State Teacher Education Board would act as a co-ordinating agency for all teacher training programmes, including in-service training of teachers. The Alberta Board of Teacher Education and Certification might be taken as an example of the desired co-ordinating body. In Alberta, Canada, "a Board of Teacher Education and Certification representing jointly the Department of Education, the University of Alberta, the Alberta Teachers' Association, and the Alberta School Trustees Association serves as a liaison body for the groups it represents. This board is purely an advisory body. It is authorized to make recommendations to the Minister of Education and to the President of the University respecting the programs of instruction, the estimates of expenditures on these programs, appointments to the staff of the Faculty of Education and regulations governing the certification of teachers."⁴¹ In the face

⁴¹University of Alberta, Faculty of Education Calendar, 1974-75 Art. 71.4.

of growing cost of education, there is the need for a body to effect economy and at the same time ensure efficiency. If each institution went entirely its own way, there would be rivalry and lobbying for a share of the limited and scarce resources.

The membership of such a body would be drawn from the Faculty of Education; the University of Nigeria, the teacher training institutions; the State School Board; the Ministry of Education; and the Nigeria Union of Teachers.

The board would have a function of planning and policy making. This would involve both short term and long-range plans with reference to intake, facilities, employment, and promotion of staff and certification of teachers. There would be need for master plans embracing all the teachers' institutions, which would be harmonized with both State and National goals.

Hence the board would;

- a) determine the budget needs of the institutions,
- b) examine requests for supplementation,
- c) support research, adaptation of research findings to local needs, and introduction of modern methods,
- d) allocate functions and programmes especially in relation to in-service training of teachers, introduction of new subjects into schools, and the employment of specialist staff,

(e) liase between the State teacher education system and such National bodies as the National Council for Education, the Joint Consultation Committee on Education, and the National Universities Commission in matters relating to teacher education. Since there can be no reliable co-ordination without adequate communication, there should be a State journal of education.

The College of Education at Owerri started one of its own called The Educator. The sponsorship could be broadened to include the Teachers' High Schools, the Teachers' College of Agriculture, the University Faculty of Education, the Department of Education of the Institute of Management and Technology, and teachers' in-service centres. In this way, it could form a useful forum for creative interchange of pedagogical ideas.

Summary

From the foregoing, it can be seen that the major institutional problems in teacher education have centered around the need to rationalize the number and size of the institutions, to provide adequate physical plant and competent staff and to co-ordinate the work of the various institutions so as to remove bottlenecks and provide efficiency. The next crucial problem would be to devise curricula that would ensure that the goals of teacher education are achieved. It is therefore necessary to look into the progress and problems of teacher education curricula in the study area.

CHAPTER V

CURRICULAR PROBLEMS

Basically, the following systems of teacher education have existed in the State, each with its own type of curriculum:

- (a) The pupil-teacher system;
- (b) The student-teacher system;
- (c) Colleges for the training of non-graduate teachers;
 - i) The Elementary or Grade III Teachers' College,
 - ii) The Higher Elementary or Grade II Teachers' College,
 - iii) The Advanced Teacher Training College,
 - iv) The Rural Education Centre.
- (d) The University Faculty of Education.

1. The Pupil-Teacher System

The pupil-teacher system, borrowed from England, was systematically organized. The first teacher training institution in the study area, St. Monica's Ogbunike, was a pupil-teacher centre as well as a primary school. The most deserving pupils were selected and appointed to a master. The master instructed the pupil-teachers during non-school hours, and the pupil-teachers helped to give lessons to junior classes during school hours. They were given examinations each year, and success in the examinations was required for registration as non-certified teachers (Part C of the Register of Teachers). In methods of teaching, the master-teacher was taken as a model. The academic curriculum consisted of religious Knowledge, English Language, Arithmetic, History, and Geography. Religious Knowledge meant memoriza-

tion of Bible texts or the Catechism; English Language meant being conversant with the rules of grammar including sentence analysis and parsing; Arithmetic entailed difficult calculations on stocks and shares, square roots, papering walls, and carpeting floors; while history and geography were based on texts written for English schools. Punctuation, neatness, and smartness were emphasized, and pupil-teachers often drilled their classes with great zeal. The curriculum for girls included domestic duties and infant care. The system continued in various central primary schools in the study area until the late forties.

2. The Student-Teacher System

A more regular form of training was the student-teacher system. Initially, St. Mark's College, Awka, was run on this system. According to Solaru, the students were required to serve three years as pupil-teachers before training. "During training, each year in college was followed by a year of practical work as teachers, after which they returned again for another year of instruction."¹ Altogether it took nine years to finish the training and take the Government Third Class Teachers' Examination. The subjects studied at the centre included Theology, Greek, School Methods, Comparative Religion, English History, Geography, and English Language. The centre later became a two-year Elementary Training College, and again a four-year Higher

¹Solaru, T. T. Op. Cit., p. 11.

Elementary Teachers' College.

3. Regular Teacher Training Colleges

The Elementary Teachers' College or Grade III

The Grade III colleges became popular with the mission agencies after the regionalization of education. They required two years training for pupils who had completed the eight-year primary school. There was not much central control of the curriculum, and each mission agency prepared their teachers in the best interests of their junior primary schools. The college set and marked their final tests and invited Government Education Officers to examine their practical work. In general, the primary school syllabus was offered in addition to junior school methods, vernacular methods, and class management.

The programme was described to the Dike Commission by a college principal in the following words"

The course is meant to be largely practical, and the academic standard required is vague, but the official syllabus is Standard Six work, and the minimum staff qualification only a little higher than Standard Six. The alleged theory of this type of college is grounding the teacher in teaching methods before he aspires to work that is more academic.²

The colleges were phased out later, and according to Fafunwa, as a result infant method was abolished in training colleges

²Dike Report: Op Cit., p. 67.

by default.³

The Higher Elementary or Grade II Colleges

The Grade II Colleges train teachers for elementary schools. Initially, they lasted three years for women and four years for men, but since the end of the Civil War, they have been two-year colleges recruiting their students from secondary schools and Grade III teachers. They form the bulk of the teacher training system in the State. Over 5,000 of the 6,000 student teachers in 1973 were in the Grade II Colleges. The pattern of the Grade II curriculum followed up to 1973 was set in 1949 with the publication of the Education Regulations contained in Appendix A. However, the State Ministry of Education has added a few more subjects and grouped them into three categories as follows:

Group I

Compulsory Subjects

- A. English
- B. Arithmetic (Basic: see p. 216)
- C. Principles and Practice of Education
- D. Physical and Health Education
- E. Practical Teaching
- F. Geography
- G. History

³Fafunwa, Babs A. "Teachers Education" in A Philosophy for Nigerian Education, Ibadan, 1969, p. 86.

<u>Group II</u>	<u>Optional Subjects at Normal Level</u>
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1. English Literature
2. Mathematics (see p. 226)
3. Religious Knowledge (Catholic)
4. Religious Knowledge (Protestant)
5. Igbo
6. Approved African Language
7. Rural Science (Theory and Practical)
8. Home Management (Theory and Practical)
9. Nature Study
10. Applied Biology
11. General Science
12. Art (Theory and Practical)
13. Music (Theory and Practical)
14. Handicraft
15. Needlework and Dress Making
16. Metal Technology
17. Graphic Art
18. General Shop Technology
19. Wood Technology

<u>Group III</u>	<u>Optional Subjects at Special Level</u>
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20. English
21. Mathematics
22. Geography
23. History

<u>Group III</u>	<u>Optional Subjects at Special Level</u>
24	Rural Science
25	Home Management
26	Needlework and Dress Making

The admission of Grade III teachers and school certificate teachers to do the same courses has created a number of problems. Women Grade III teachers did not do history or geography in their colleges, but these are compulsory subjects in the Grade II final examination. So, within a period of two years they are expected to master the programme planned for a four-year course. On the other hand, some of the pupils who have completed secondary school find the Grade II colleges offering nothing new in most subjects. In the case of science subjects, the courses and facilities are inferior to high school work. Yet, they have to spend two years to obtain a certificate, and what is worse they have to repeat the same examination in English which they passed before going into the Grade II college. Despite that, the Grade II teachers certificate is not regarded as a higher qualification than the school certificate when students seek admission into the Advanced Teacher Training College or into the university.

Mathematics is not a compulsory subject and very few students ever take it. Of the 4,989 candidates who took the Grade II Teachers' Examination in 1971, only 71 or 1.42 per cent passed in mathematics.⁴ Yet the State

⁴Ministry of Education, Enugu. Grade Two Teachers' Examination Results, 1971.

Government has a programme to introduce the teaching of Modern Mathematics in the elementary schools. Teachers with inadequate mathematical concepts can hardly handle such a programme. Similarly, the prescribed science subjects are not compulsory and their popularity is akin to that of mathematics. Yet since 1965 there has been a programme to teach science in the elementary schools of the study area.⁵ The Igbo Language spoken by the over eight million natives of the State and by nearly twelve million Nigerians receives only scant attention either in the training colleges or in the schools.⁶

Recommendation

It has already been suggested that the Grade II colleges should be known as Teachers' High Schools. The core subjects suggested by Professor Fafunwa are:

- a) Science
- b) Mathematics
- c) Social Science
- d) English
- e) A local language.⁷

⁵cf. Ministry of Education, Enugu, Policy for Education, Official Document No. 7 of 1963, p. 4.

⁶cf. Reverend Fr. S. Ebisike, "Why Despise the Igbo Language," The Leader, November 20, 1971, p. 7.

⁷Fafunwa, Babs A. "Teachers' Education," Op Cit., p. 95.

Professor Fafunwa was thinking about those students who were admitted into training colleges after their elementary school, and who require secondary school education as well as training for teaching. It has already been shown that the East Central State can continue its practice of recruiting elementary school teacher trainees from pupils who have already completed the secondary school. Their programme of studies would consist of three parts:

Part I: Professional subjects to enable the students to appreciate what education is all about and to learn methods of teaching the various school subjects. A course in education consisting of the following sections is suggested:

- (a) History of Nigerian Education.
- (b) Sociology of the School
- (c) Child Psychology.
- (d) School Management.
- (e) Methods of Teaching.

Part 2: General education for personal enrichment through emphasis on the practical aspects of:

- (a) English.
- (b) Igbo.

- (c) Music
- (d) Art
- (e) Health and Physical Education.

Part 3: Special subjects to enable the students to acquire greater breadth and understanding of the principles of (a) mathematics, and (b) one of the following:

- i) General Science.
- ii) Social Studies.
- iii) Home Management
- iv) Hausa or Yoruba.

The total training programme will be completed by an additional year of supervised teaching.

The Advanced Teachers Training College

The initial intake was 166 students. Each was to major in two subject fields, while the study of education and professional preparation were compulsory for all. There were in 1963 seven departments: Agricultural Science; English; French; Geography; History; Mathematics, and Education. In the following year the Departments of Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Home Economics, and Physical and Health Education were added. The Departments of Agricultural

Science and Home Economics were regarded as offering double major subjects so that students enrolled in them studied only Education in addition. This remained the pattern of the College for the first ten years of its existence, 1963-1973. In July 1973, the college became an autonomous institution and its name was changed to "Alvan Ikoku College of Education." Consequent upon this, the college mapped out the lines of its future development as follows:⁸

1. A programme leading to the N.C.E. for primary school teachers.
2. A programme leading to N.C.E. for teachers of lower forms of secondary schools.
3. A programme leading to N.C.E. for Grade II teacher training college tutors.
4. A programme leading to a teachers' degree for teachers of upper classes of the secondary schools and Grade II teacher training colleges.
5. Programmes leading to different types of diplomas for serving teachers.
6. Short-term in-service courses.

It also proposed to establish four schools made up of the following College Departments:

A. School of Arts

1. English Language and Literature.
2. Igbo Language and Culture.

⁸Alvan Ikoku College of Education, "Proposals for Academic Development of the College, 1973, p. 3 and pp. 10-11.

3. French

4. Fine Arts

5. Music

B. School of Social Science

1. History

2. Economics

3. Religious Studies

4. Geography

C. School of Natural Science

1. Mathematics

2. Physics

3. Chemistry

4. Biology

5. Agricultural Science

6. Home Economics

D. School of Education

1. Foundation of Education

2. Educational Psychology

3. Curriculum and Instruction

4. Educational Administration

5. Health and Physical Education

6. Primary Education

As a College of Education, the institution might consider organizing the four "schools" along the lines of primary teaching, secondary teaching, teacher training, and extension programmes. The college planned to adopt the course-credit system which has been the practice at the University of Nigeria. The length, weight, number, and variety of courses required for certification for the three years of study were yet to be worked out.

The Rural Education Centre

Initially, the centre admitted both trained and untrained teachers and taught them practical agriculture for periods of six to nine months. Later, theoretical courses were added including general ideas about agriculture, soil science, surveying, animal husbandry, horticulture, and agricultural economics (see Appendix C). These were in addition to practical work which entails the cultivation of about 800 square meters by each student. There are also courses in the history and philosophy of education and educational organization and administration.

Since 1963, only Grade II teachers have been admitted and the course has been extended to two years. Successful candidates are awarded the teachers' Grade I Certificate which entitles them to teach agriculture in elementary schools.

It has been indicated that the teaching of agriculture in primary schools is likely to be ineffective, and that what primary school teachers require is a good grounding in general science. A good many of the secondary school pupils to be trained already have the required theoretical basis. All that they will need is the method of teaching it. It is suggested, therefore, that maintaining the Rural Education Centre as a separate training

college for teachers is not advisable.

4. The University of Nigeria Faculty of Education

The university prepares teachers for the upper classes of secondary schools. With minor modifications its curriculum has been that described in its 1961 Calendar as follows:

In keeping with the recommendations of the Ashby Commission on Higher Education in Nigeria, the University of Nigeria is giving major emphasis to the development of degree programme in Education (B.Sc. and B.A. Education) which the Faculty believes to be a major step forward in the history of Nigerian education. Among the dimensions of this programme are the following:

Professional Education Work

All students pursuing the degree course in education are expected to take a body of work in professional education. . . . This programme ordinarily includes required work in the fields of Foundations of Education (including philosophy of education and social foundations of education), Psychology of Education (including human growth and development), Methodology and Curriculum Development (including special work in the teaching fields in which the candidate

is interested), Test and Measurement, History of Nigerian Education, and Practical Teaching. At the final year of the programme there is a required Professional Seminar which is designed to help the teacher view his work in terms of its total social significance and to deal with matters relating to the professionalization of teaching. In addition to the required work in professional education, a variety of elective courses are available in such fields as Educational and Vocational Guidance, Adult Education, Educational Administration, School Librarianship, and Primary School Methodology. . . .

In addition to work in the field of education per se, students are ordinarily expected to engage in closely related work in the fields of sociological analysis and community change, often being expected to engage in a community study and to take part in a community development or community education project, preferably involving a school, or in the alternative, present a thesis on an aspect of Nigerian Education.

Subject Matter Work

In addition to professional work in the field of education, each student preparing to teach in academic subjects is expected to pursue work in two teaching fields appropriate to Nigerian schools. . . . A combination of any two of the following related subjects (is) acceptable:

Physics	History
Chemistry	English
Biology/Botany/Zoology	Music
Mathematics	Modern Language
Geography	Art
Physical Education	

English Language

Because of the extreme importance of English Language in all teaching in Nigeria, special emphasis is placed upon some further advanced work in English. This work is concentrated on those aspects of language particularly important to effective communication and the teaching of English; and some attention is given to linguistics, and selected aspects of informal logic and critical thinking.

General Education

It is the policy of the university that students

pursuing degree work should possess those elements of liberal education which will permit them to exercise their future functions as intellectual leaders. . . . In order to achieve the breadth of vision required, students in education degree courses pursue some courses designed particularly to achieve this purpose. These are English Language, Natural Science, Social Science, and Humanities.⁹

In the 1970-73 Calendar, the list of subjects was revised to include Religious Studies, and French was mentioned specifically instead of Modern Languages. Students were to specialize in one subject instead of two chosen from the revised list. The courses in Education were specified for the first degree courses as follows:

- (a) Foundation of Education:
 - i) Social and Philosophical Foundations of Education.
 - ii) History of Education.
 - iii) Comparative Education.
- (b) Curriculum and Methodology:
 - i) Curriculum Development.
 - ii) Principles and Methods of Teaching.
- (c) Educational Psychology:
 - i) Child Growth and Development.
 - ii) Tests and Measurements.

⁹University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Department of Education Calendar, June 1961.

(d) Educational Administration.

Higher degrees in Education are also offered.

The B.Sc. (Education) is also offered in the Departments of Health and Physical Education and in the Department of Vocational Teacher Education. The latter consists of the following fields:

- (a) Agricultural Teacher Education.
- (b) Business Teacher Education.
- (c) Home Economics Teacher Education.
- (d) Industrial-Technical Teacher Education.

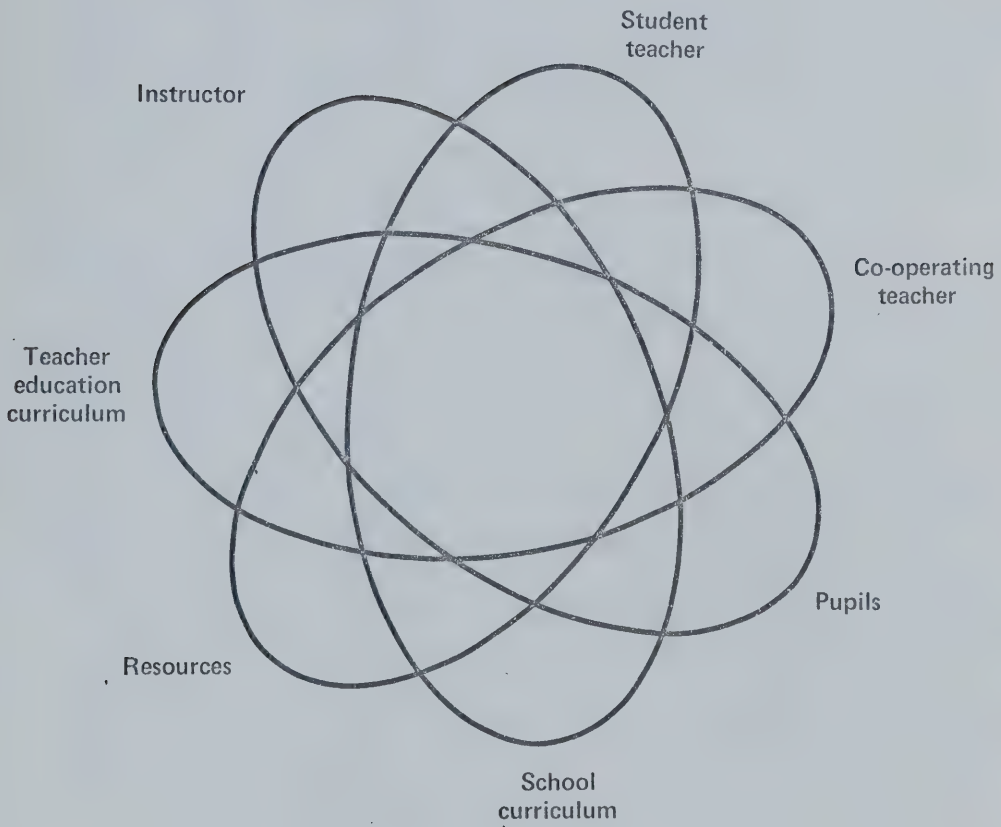
Unlike the Universities of Lagos and Ibadan, one significant omission is the offering of Igbo or any other Nigerian Language in the Faculty of Education. The University of Lagos offers in addition, African Studies as a degree subject for intending teachers.

Teaching practice was done during the long vacation when schools were still in session, but from 1973, the school year was made to coincide with that of the university, so that alternative arrangements have to be made. The suggestions on internship programmes made here are now more relevant to the University Faculty of Education than before.

4. Teaching Practice

Great emphasis on the mastery of the skills of classroom practice was characteristic of the pupil-teacher and the student-teacher systems of

A Model of Interacting Elements in a School
Setting during Teaching Practice



After Bernard Masters

FIG. 7

teacher training. There was in general much practice and little background theory. When the regular training colleges developed, they built practising schools in or adjacent to their campuses. There, a master teacher demonstrated the skills of his craft to trainee teachers. The students took turns to teach classes under the master teacher's watchful eyes, and in co-operation with the college methods tutor, the students were assigned grades or marks.

When the training colleges grew bigger, the practising school became too small for the number of students. As a result, schools outside the campus came to be used. Gradually, the role of the master teacher was lost and teaching practice came to mean students taking classes of absent teachers in off-campus schools where they are visited once or twice a week by their college tutors. This is at present very much the practice in the Grade II teachers' colleges where students go out for six weeks in their first year and six weeks in their second year to schools in their college areas.

The advanced Teacher Training College and the University of Nigeria use the system of block teaching practice often extending up to a whole term. This is preceded by college briefing, lectures on subject methods, peer group teaching, and observation visits to schools. Since 1972, the Advanced Teacher Training College has

developed the use of video-tapes, micro-teaching, and inter-action analysis methods in the on-campus training of their students. The college intends to introduce competency-based training into their programme.

In addition to preparation in the campus, the professional training of the teacher should include one year of internship before regular employment. In the Nigerian context, this could be taken to be equivalent to the one-year national service now done by graduates coming out of universities. Reese has outlined how the school teaching internship programme can be structured,¹⁰ and Hodysh and Miller have shown how the programme can be integrated with the college teaching experience.¹¹

The internship is to be based on a proper understanding of the goals of the institution and on the unique educational value of full-time involvement for the student. There is no adequate substitute for practical experience for the teacher. The emphasis has to be on the total involvement of the student for the time. In order to make the internship effective, certain conditions must be fulfilled.

¹⁰Reese, J. "Structuring the Teaching Internship," Junior College Journal, May 1972, pp. 27-31.

¹¹Hodysh, H. W. and Miller, P. J. "Integration and the Professional Year," Teacher Education, Spring 1974, pp. 26-31.

1. The intern should not be assigned a full teaching load in order to allow the student to participate fully in other activities of the school. He requires time to carry out the research projects and the written reports connected with internship. The practice of assigning two students to a class has much to recommend it for the internship period, provided both of them are always in class together.

2. The intern should participate in a wide range of activities within the school. The value of this kind of experience is that the intern becomes familiar not simply with teaching classes in the school, but also with the internal administration, the committee structure, extra-curricular and related activities. The student-teachers should participate as if they were newly recruited members of staff.

3. Each intern should be supervised by a designated co-operating teacher from the school where the internship is done. The functions of the co-operator in relation to the intern should be:

a) To co-operate with the intern who has the responsibility for planning lessons and methods of presentation, and for identifying the course material to be utilized.

b) To discuss course objectives with the intern and relate them to both the instructional methods

to be employed and the outcomes that may be expected.

c) To provide direct assistance in the area of student testing, in the selection of course materials, in overall instructional procedures, in the use of laboratory apparatus, or other facilities.

d) To observe the teaching techniques of the intern and to schedule regular meetings to discuss classroom progress and other matters relating to teaching.

e) To assess the relationship between the individual lessons and the total objectives of the curriculum.

4. The student should be required to report formally on his experiences. This will help the student to identify clearly his own successes and failures, and it should give the college the feedback which might help it to improve constantly on the arrangements for the internship. The report should cover a variety of instructional and administrative procedures.

5. The internship should be based on a set of formal agreements among the college, the school, the co-operating teacher and the student. Matters to be settled beforehand include the teaching load of the student, the provision to involve students in activities beyond the classroom, accommodation, and provision of teaching aids.

6. The intern should not feel abandoned by his college. Periodic meetings scheduled in advance should

be held between the intern, the master-teacher, and a designated member or members of the college.

7. The intern should be paid an appropriate fraction of the salary of a full-time teacher in the school, and the master-teacher should have an inducement allowance. Fig. 7 shows the interrelationships involved.

Before internship, however, there should be practical preparation of the teacher in the college. Levels I - IV of the hierarchies of teaching experiences outlined below could be done in college, making use of pupils from a nearby school.

TABLE XXIV

Hierarchies of Teaching Experiences and
Extent of Student-Teacher Participation.¹²

Levels	Size of Group	Extent of Student-Teacher Planning
I	One child	Knowledge or skill to be taught
II	Small group	Limited project (micro-teaching)
III	Large group	Isolated lesson
IV	Whole class	Unit of work
V	Full-fledged internship	Professional function of teacher

Thus the internship would form the final phase of training before certification.

¹²Hodysh and Miller. Ibid.

5. Certification

When the Government intervened in formal education, one of the controlling factors it introduced was the certification and registration of teachers. The Government was beginning to pay grants in aid to schools, and it wanted to make sure that the money was used to improve the quality of education. The 1916 Education Code stipulated the conditions for gaining a teacher's certificate. A prospective teacher often began as a pupil-teacher after passing Standard V or VI of the primary school.¹³ He had to pass a second year pupil-teachers' examination before seeking admission into a training college. At the end of two years training, he would take the Third Class Teachers' Certificate Examination. He could take the Second Class Teachers' Examination, without further training, if he passed the Third Class Examination. The First Class Certificate was awarded to a teacher who obtained three good annual reports from Government Inspectors if he already held a Second Class Certificate.

The 1926 Education Code modified the conditions of certificate award. It was felt that two years was not enough training for teaching in the upper classes of

¹³cf. Fajana, A. "The Nigerian Union of Teachers," Nigeria Magazine, Nos 110-112, 1974, p. 80.

primary schools, and the First Class Teachers were poor material for secondary schools. The period of training was therefore increased to four years, before teachers were allowed to take the Third Class Examination. The taking of the Second Class Examination would no longer be automatic after passing the Third Class, but a prospective candidate had to earn three satisfactory annual reports in the case of men and two in the case of women before taking the examination. The Second Class Teachers could be employed as subject specialists in secondary schools. The First Class Certificate was in effect abolished.

In 1930, a two-year training course for teachers was re-introduced in addition to the four-year course, and teachers' certificates became "Elementary" and "Higher Elementary" for the two and four-year trainees respectively. A new examination, the Senior Teachers' Certificate Examination was established for teachers who had gained the Higher Elementary Certificate and taught for five years after. This certificate served the same purpose as the 1926 Second Class Certificate.

As shown in Appendix A, further modifications were made in the conditions of award of these certificates, after the promulgation of the Education Code of 1948.

The examinations were originally set and marked by Government Education Officers, but later prospective

Senior Teachers were required to take London University Examinations together with a practical teaching test conducted locally. The 1948 Code renamed the certificates as Grade I, II, and III; Grade I being equivalent to Senior Teacher; Grade II to Higher Elementary; and Grade III to Elementary Teacher. After the formation of the West African Examinations Council, English, Arithmetic, and Principles of Education became "centrally set papers" examined by the Council, while each Region made arrangements for the local conduct of the rest of the Grade II Teachers' Examinations. In the East Central State at present, certification of a Grade II teacher requires passes in seven compulsory and two optional subjects. The Grade I Certificate may be gained according to the 1949 conditions or by a successful completion of a course at the Rural Education Centre. (See p. 210)

The University of Nigeria and the tertiary teachers' colleges conduct their own certification examinations with the aid of external examiners. Possession of any of the certificates named above entitles a teacher to be registered in Part A of the Register of Teachers. The Grade II and Grade I Certificates do not necessarily require previous training experience, as these certificates can be gained by external candidates.

Hitherto, it can be said that certification of teachers has required two conditions, academic sufficiency

and teaching proficiency ascertained by successful teaching of a classroom lesson. It is doubtful whether these are adequate conditions. Certification needs to be based on successful completion of an approved programme of studies. It should also be an evidence of moral character and satisfactory teaching performance after an internship.

It is suggested that all teachers' institutions including the Teachers High Schools should conduct their own certification examinations vetted by external examiners. The final assessment of a student teacher should not be based on a single examination but on a record of his performance throughout his period of training. The present Grade II Teachers' Certificate Examination fails woefully in this regard. What is really important in raising the quality of the training given is the existence of a continuous evaluation system of the institution programme rather than the subjection of the students to remote external examinations.

6. In-Service Training

There is the added problem whether certification of a teacher should be for life or for a fixed period since knowledge is constantly changing. Should in-service training be obligatory or optional to teachers? These questions cannot be resolved until in-service training is put on permanent footing in the educational system.

In-service short courses were frequently given by the major mission agencies to their serving teachers. The Eastern Nigeria Government often imported teachers

from the United Kingdom to give vacation courses in the teaching of English and a few other school subjects.¹⁴ Since the end of the Civil War, the Ministry of Education, the University of Nigeria, and the State Branch of the Nigeria Union of Teachers have conducted some in-service training for teachers.

The Ministry organized one-week refresher courses in the teaching of modern mathematics, elementary science, and social science for teachers in the primary schools. The courses were conducted by Zonal Inspectors of Education who were not necessarily specialists in those fields or in teaching methods, but who saw their job mainly as that of explaining the contents of the syllabuses already drawn up in those fields. There was no follow-up, and no evaluation either of the impact of the short courses on the modernization of the curriculum of the elementary schools or of the degree of adoption of the proposed changes.

The Ministry also ran short courses and conferences for teachers of various secondary school subjects. In 1973, practically every secondary school subject was discussed in series of conferences and short courses. French,

¹⁴cf. Ministry of Education, Enugu, Annual Report 1961, p. 27.

Mathematics, and the Natural Science subject masters had more regular conferences. Since the objectives of those conferences and courses were never clearly stated, their outcomes were in every way similar to the primary school teachers' refresher programmes.

As John F. Kerr remarked:

The conventional method of in-service provision through conferences and short courses of lectures rarely provides all three conditions for total involvement--interest, commitment, and resources. There is no doubt that the short series of lectures is an effective way of keeping the teaching profession informed and interested about changes in educational theory and practice, but there is evidence that it is not an effective method of bringing about desirable changes in the classroom.¹⁵

Even if an enthusiastic teacher desired to bring about changes as a result of the courses attended, his efforts were sure to be thwarted by the indifference of other teachers, the requirements of external examinations, and the prescribed school syllabuses.

The local branch of the Nigerian Union of Teachers ran courses in 1973 with the aim of enhancing the professional efficiency of the participants and raising the teachers' educational standard by helping them to pass the Grade II Teachers' Certificate Examination. The

¹⁵Kerr, John F. "The Problem of Curriculum Reform," *Changing the Curriculum* (ed.), John F. Kerr, London: University of London Press, 1971, p. 35.

participants were members of the N.U.T. who, due to family or other reasons, were not able to go back to college for certification. Specifically they were Grade III, C/S, and trained Grade II teachers who had not successfully completed the requirements for certification. The lecturers were drawn from subject masters in secondary schools and teacher training colleges around, mostly graduates with teaching qualifications.¹⁶

At Owerri, the organization comprised three Zones. Each Zone had a separate course co-ordinator and a separate set of lecturers for subjects. Before the courses started, the subject masters, the course co-ordinators, and all the lecturers had a meeting in which the scheme to be covered, the standard to be maintained, and the textbooks to be used were discussed and agreed upon. This was in-service on a more permanent basis, but as can be seen, it was merely preparation to pass a specific examination. Those who had passed the examination and got their certificates for life did not concern themselves with any form of in-service training. In fact, teachers trained in the nineteen-fifties and beyond cannot cope with the New Mathematics, Basic Science, and Social Science which now characterize the work of elementary

¹⁶Source: Office of the Nigeria Union of Teachers, Owerri, East Central State.

schools of very many countries. More than half of the teaching force belong to this category. The new insights into educational psychology, sociology, and methodology; the rapid rise in school enrolment, the expectations of parents, many of whom are now graduates, point to the fact that the in-service training of teachers should be organized on a general and permanent basis to ensure that teachers knowledge of their subjects and of their job is up-to-date.

Towards meeting the problem, the following lines of action appear to be necessary:

1. Appointment of full-time directors of in-service courses attached to each of the teachers' institutions.

2. Co-ordination of the efforts of the Ministry, the N.U.T., the British Council, UNESCO, the university and other agencies.

3. Attachment of benefits to completion of in-service courses. The teacher may gain credits which should count towards salary increases or promotions or even towards gaining a higher certificate, where the course is sufficiently long and acceptable to the teachers institution.

4. As funds and competent staff become sufficiently available, teachers' centres under the general guidance of the college director of in-service courses could be established.

Summary

Teacher education in the State has travelled a long way from the pupil-teacher system to the present, and is on the verge of being accorded recognition as full-fledged professional training. It is expected that the curriculum of teacher training institutions should include the following:

1. Opportunities for general education.
2. Opportunities for concentration in depth and breadth in, at least, one teaching field.
3. Opportunities to develop basic understandings in the foundations of professional education.
4. Opportunities to become familiar with the curriculum of the school and with instructional procedures.
5. Opportunities to translate theory into practice through a well-ordered programme of student teaching and internship.
6. Opportunities to encourage serving teachers to go on learning.¹⁷

¹⁷cf. Coutts, H. T. "Behind the Model." (Unpublished), p. 3.

CHAPTER VI

THE GOALS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

1. Introduction

It is unfortunately true that teacher education in the East Central State of Nigeria has operated until now with very little in the way of clearly stated goals. On the other hand, several attempts have been made over the years to define the aim of education in general. Since the aim of teacher education must needs be related to those of the total educational enterprise, it is necessary at this point to consider the stated objectives of general education which concern the study area, as they have evolved across several generations.

(a) Traditional Goals

Although the goals were not explicitly defined, yet they were clearly understood. Ibo traditional education, as already described, had character formation as its principal objective. Character formation meant strength of will, industriousness, and conformity to the traditional customs and norms. The norms included the worship of a variety of natural phenomena, modes of inter-personal and inter-lineage relationships as well as the prevailing systems of thought and belief. There were elders and various age-grades who made sure that everyone conformed to the customs and traditions of the clan. Since there were no professional teachers, the younger folk got their value systems and modes of behaviour from local discussions, decisions, folk tales, or from experience. Any serious deviations from the traditions

brought instant reproach and sometimes reprisal. Conformity was the rule. For example, whatever vocation a man had besides farming, he was still expected to own and to cultivate yams. There was no room in the traditional education milieu for questioning age-old practices and there was little or no room for creative interchange of ideas. Conformity was secured by persuasion or by fear. There was fear of ghost, of wizards and witches, of particular animals and their cries, and thunder and lightning were regarded as evil omens which visited only wicked people. Respect for age was highly valued. It was the old man who offered sacrifice to the gods. It can thus be said that the goals of traditional education were mostly societal and had to do in large measure with the polity. Except in the "puberty schools" already referred to, there were no training centres and no clear curriculum goals. In fact, by its "Osu" system¹ and in other ways, it inhibited self-actualization of some individuals. Consequently, when missionaries came, not a few people found Missionary education a means of escape from inhibitory traditionalism.

(b) The goals of Missionary Education

Despite a variety of denominations, the goals of missionary education were quite simple and clear: to convert the people to Christianity. The following citations from the writings of the missionaries and their agents

¹The "Osu" were people dedicated to the gods. They and their offsprings could not inter-marry with the rest of the community. They could not become chiefs or hold political positions in the community.

bring out this point clearly:

- i) I am fast coming to the conviction that schools for the rising generation must be the basis of all missions among barbarous and savage heathen. The Gospel should be preached regularly and steadily, faithfully and prayerfully, but through the children we get at the root of idolatry and leaven the whole lump.²
- ii) Education had been kept strictly before us, and with good results. The Lagos High School for boys has been diligently worked, and stands high in the opinion of the people, and will indeed compare favourably with other establishments of the kind in West Africa. Our great purpose of this school was to supply suitable agents for interior work, and we hope soon to be able to send forth the first batch of young men, well equipped for the work of spreading the Gospel in their own country.³
- iii) In the glow of love which Christianity inspires, the early Missionaries dedicated themselves to the alleviation of human misery, ignorance, illiteracy, fear, and superstition which spread their dark palls over what is now known as Eastern Nigeria. . . . As soon as the messengers of God arrived, they opened battle against these evils. They realized at once that the victory could never be won if people remained illiterate. One of their first implements therefore, in this battle. . . was education.⁴

²Fafunwa, Babs A., Op Cit., pp. 84-85. Quoted from letter of R. H. Stone to Culpeper, July 9, 1858.

³Adetoro, J. E. The Handbook of Education in Nigeria; p. 12. Quoted from Report of Wesleyan Missionary Society on Education in Nigeria, 1879.

⁴Ukachi, C. "In Memory of Igbariam." Essays in Honour of St. Charles College, Onitsha, 1928-1965.

Thus education was used as a means of conversion. In a sense, it could be said that the missionary goal resembled the traditional goal since it required beliefs though of a different order in revealed truths and mysteries. Traditional education required beliefs in magic and in such things as the significance of the cry of birds and the spirits dwelling in trees. But in a number of ways the missionary goal had a wider horizon than the traditional goal of education. Traditional goals did not aim beyond the clan or tribe. The love of all human beings, which formed a part of the goals of missionary education, when put into practice provided a basis for national integration through a sense of spiritual brotherhood. Although the goals were ethically desirable as leading to the improvement of human quality in a particular sense, they contained no definite national or adequate curriculum objectives. The main objective was to prepare people to be spiritual in outlook. As actually happened in a number of instances, the good parts of native culture were lumped together with the bad as heathen. The early products of the mission schools looked down upon the language,

Foot No. 4 continued:

(ed.) M. O. Ijere, University of Nigeria,
Nsukka, 1965, pp. 73-74.

arts, music, and dances of their native land and so rejected some of those things that made traditional society cohere. The goal of conversion was sometimes combined with training in manual labour and in some cases agriculture and industry were taught.⁵ Some of the Missionaries sensed the low level of these occupations, but in general, their efforts at remedying the situation had very little effect because the agricultural and industrial training provided were adjuncts to the primary aim of training for evangelization and because those occupations did not fetch as much lucrative employment as the literary education which the Missionaries provided.

(c) The Goals of Early Nigeria Government Education

As already noted, the Colonial Government left the field of formal education to the Missionaries until towards the end of the nineteenth century. The first colonial official policy on education came in 1925 with the publication of Education Policy in British Tropical Africa (H.M.S.O). Therein the goals of African education

⁵ For example, the Hope Waddel Training Institute, Calabar, taught carpentry, printing, tailoring, motor engineering, machinery, and gardening in 1920.

Source: Jesse Jones, Thomas. Education in Africa. New York: Phelps-Stokes Fund, 1922, pp. 164-165.

were defined as follows:

Education should be adapted to the mentality, aptitudes, occupations, and traditions of the various peoples, conserving as far as possible all sound and healthy elements in the fabric of their social life; adapting them where necessary to changed circumstances and progressive ideas, as an agent of natural growth and evolution. Its aim should be to render the individual more efficient in his or her condition of life, whatever it may be, and to promote the advancement of the community as a whole through the improvement of agriculture, the development of native industries, the improvement of health, the training of people in the management of their own affairs and the inculcation of ideals of citizenship and service. It must include the raising up of capable, trustworthy, public-spirited leaders, belonging to their own race. Education thus defined narrows the hiatus between the educated class and the rest of the community, whether chiefs or peasants. As a part of the general policy for the advancement of the people every Department of the Government concerned with their welfare or vocational teaching--including especially the Department of Health, Public Works, Railways, Agriculture--must co-operate closely in the educational policy. The first task of education is to raise the standard alike of character and efficiency of the bulk of the people, but provision must be also made for the training of those who are required to fill posts in the administrative and technical services, as well as of those who as chiefs will occupy positions of exceptional trust and responsibility. As resources permit, the door of advancement, through higher education, in Africa must be increasingly opened for those who by character, ability, and temperament show themselves fitted to profit by such education.⁶

⁶Ukeje, B. O., Op Cit., pp. 58-59: Quoted from Colonial Office; Advisory Committee on Native Education, British African Dependencies, Education Policy in British Tropical Africa. London: H.M.S.O., 1925, p. 4.

In another part of the report, it stated that:

. . . a complete educational system should include primary (including infant) education, secondary education of different types; technical and vocational schools and institutions some of which may hereafter reach university rank for such subjects as teacher education, medicine, and agriculture.⁷

The statement of goals contained elements of the societal, institutional, and curriculum factors. There was to be improvement in human quality in Africa such as training in health and efficiency and ability to manage one's affairs. It also aimed at the improvement of the economy; agriculture and native industries. By native industries were meant handicraft and production of industrial raw materials. The colonial system laid much stress on both agriculture and native industries, but here, the goals were diametrically opposed to those of the Africans who sought the portals of the schoolroom. To the latter, education was a means of freeing themselves from the drudgery of tribal craft and farming and an avenue to white-collar jobs. That was why, despite the policy,

. . . education in Nigeria was necessarily directed towards the objects of supplying traders native assistants who could understand and talk a little English. The syllabus of the English Elementary School was copied . . . and therefore pupils could proceed to a type of school modelled on the English Grammar School with its classical tradition.⁸

⁷The Nuffield Foundation and the Colonial Office, African Education, London: Oxford University Press, 1953, p. 3, Article 13.

⁸Ukeje, B. O. Op. Cit., p. 78.

The policy also aimed at the conservation of tribal polity by training chiefs and ensuring that the peasants were loyal to them. But education created desires and ambitions which the tribe could not satisfy and so the authority of the chiefs was considerably weakened. Hence, although the statement of goals of colonial education touched upon the relevant basic factors, there were inherent contradictions in their application as well as conflict of expectations between the ruler and the ruled.

(d) Education Goals of the Eastern Nigeria Government

The official statement of the goals of its educational system by the Eastern Nigeria Government is contained in the Education Handbook, 1964.⁹ Under the heading "General Objectives" it stated as follows:

Educational policy, to be serviceable and viable, must be geared to the special needs and aims of a nation. We must now evolve a policy, a system of education which will produce men and women who will not be out of place in a technological age; a system which will ensure uniform standards; a system which will blend science and technology with culture and spiritual enrichment; a system which will feed our industries with personnel without starving our schools, colleges, the church, and offices of such personnel; a system which will inculcate in our youth due respect for the land--in short a system which will provide useful, self-confident and competent citizens.

⁹ Ministry of Education, Eastern Nigeria: Educational Handbook, 1964. Official Document No. 16, of 1964, "Policy for Education," p. 3.

The statement of goals recognizes the importance of the improvement of human quality: "spiritual and cultural enrichment," it recognizes some aspects of the polity, "the schools, colleges, the church," and it mentions an aspect of the economy, namely "industries." It also includes an aspect of social change, the "technological age." But it is vague in some areas. It does not say what the "special needs and aims of the nation" are, and in the local parlance "respect for the land" can mean appreciation of the importance of agriculture, or respect for elders and native customs, or adherence to the rule of law.

(e) The Goals of Education Under the East

Central State Government

It is not known whether there has been a separate definition of educational goals by the East Central State Government, although the policies relating to the ownership, control, and management of schools had been stated. Its educational objectives are, however, expected to reflect the general national objectives stated by the Federal Government in the Second National Development Plan. The national objectives are:

- (i) a united, strong, and self-reliant nation;
- (ii) a great and dynamic economy;
- (iii) a just and egalitarian society;
- (iv) a land of bright and full opportunity
for all citizens, and

(v) a free and democratic society.¹⁰

Resume

The fact that official statements of educational goals have been inadequate and ambiguous has made their application and evaluation extremely difficult for the average teacher. Consequently, education in the study area has been riddled with undesired results. Some of these are:

- a) Education is misinterpreted to mean the passing of external examinations and the possession of paper qualifications.
- b) Memorization rather than problem solving forms the keynote of what goes on in school.
- c) With regard to any one type of institution, there are too many different decision-making organizations resulting in conflict of interests.¹¹
- d) Teacher education is not adequately related to the needs of the schools, as the previous chapters of this dissertation clearly show.

Nevertheless, it is incumbent upon the Government to state clearly the objectives of the various types of education offered, including teacher education.

2. The Goals of Teacher Education

As far as teacher education is concerned, official

¹⁰Ministry of Information, Lagos. Nigeria Second National Development Plan, 1970-1974, p. 32.

¹¹UNESCO, Paris. Op. Cit., Vol. I, p. 60. The Report speaks of 18 in all for the whole country.

statements of goals have been rare indeed. The Memorandum on Education Policy in British Tropical Africa¹² already referred to, did state that African teaching staff should be "adequate in numbers, qualifications, and in character, and should include women." The Nigeria Ten-Year Education Plan of 1946 included as one of its aims, "better conditions of service for teachers employed by the missions and other voluntary bodies, in order to provide a better trained and more contented staff."¹³ These statements do not go far enough, since they tend to leave out the broad societal aims in the education of the teacher, and since they do not give clear indication of what the professional training of the teacher ought to be. The Dike Commission saw the teacher as "a full member of the community" who must deal with parents as well as children and assist in "curing the materialism of West African public life."¹⁴ On the other hand, the most succinct and clear statement of teacher education goals for the study area is contained in the Ikoku Report:

A well integrated teacher education programme, adequately equipped, effectively geared to the needs of the society and the individual in this constantly changing environment is our goal.¹⁵

¹²Op. Cit.

¹³The Ten-Year Education Plan, Lagos, Government Printer, p. 40.

¹⁴Dike Report. Op. Cit., p. 66.

¹⁵Report of the Conference on the Review of the Educational System in Eastern Nigeria. Official Document No. 25 of 1964 (Ikoku Report) Government Printer, Enugu.

**A MODEL OF INTERACTING FACTORS
DETERMINING THE GOALS
OF TEACHER EDUCATION**

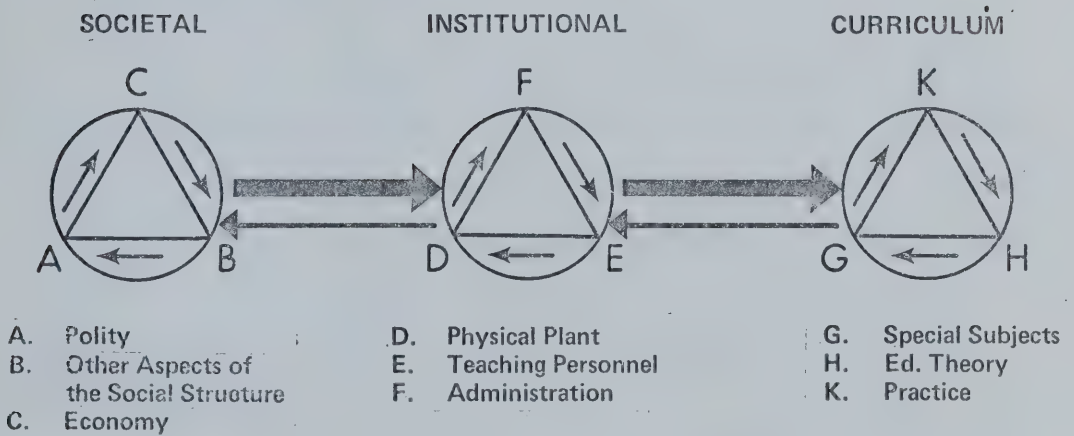


FIG. 8

In this brief statement, societal and institutional factors relating to teacher education are recognized, though the curriculum factors are not mentioned.

If teacher education is to be really successful it is essential to achieve a greater clarification of teacher education goals and we must now address ourselves to this vital task.

3. The Model (Fig. 8)

The model depicts three essential interacting factors which determine the goals of teacher education: the societal, the institutional, and the curriculum factors. Previous goal definitions have been based on one or two factors only, hence their inadequacy. Any comprehensive statement of goals of teacher education in any context should include the consideration of these three factors. The arrows in the diagram show the interrelationships between the factors and also imply the direction and intensity of change caused by the interaction of the factors.

The societal factors represent the main source of influence on the kind of teacher training institutions and the curriculum of these institutions, as well as the reason for their existence. In the model, the societal factors are grouped into three divisions: Polity, Human Quality, and Economy.

"Polity" refers to the group institutions within the society. It includes the State, the political parties, the family, the church, and the school system. It also refers

to the concepts relating to group solidarity such as patriotism, democracy, the rule of law, national unity, kinship, and in the words of the Nigeria Anthem, "brotherhood."¹⁶ Chapter III highlighted some of the problems facing the Nigerian society as a whole and shows that there is still a lot of leeway to be made up to achieve satisfactory political integration.¹⁷ What is taught in the Grade II teachers' colleges at the moment has very little Nigerian context and the students are not sufficiently made aware of the social problems around them.¹⁸ This is because the work of the training colleges has been for the most part dominated by the need to learn facts required for passing examinations. There is, therefore, a case for replacing the separate history and geography Grade II syllabuses as they now exist with Social Studies, making use of discussions, debates, and role play in teaching it; and there is a case for introducing Sociology of the School in teacher education curricula so that teachers may become aware of Nigeria social problems, especially those that have direct bearing on the school. The students need

¹⁶"Though tribe and tongue may differ,
In brotherhood we stand."

¹⁷See Chapter VII on the commitments of the Nigerian Nation, and also the goals of education under the East Central State Government.

¹⁸See, for example, the history and geography syllabus in Appendix A and the geography examination paper in Appendix D.

to discuss the merits and demerits of alternative ways of solving those problems. The goal should be to train teachers who have clear thinking about the society in which they live, about the relation of the school to the society, and about their responsibilities to themselves and to their colleagues, and not simply to train teachers who will be satisfied with teaching facts in a vacuum.

Under the heading "Other Aspects of the Social Structure" should be considered the development of desirable social and ethical values. The goal should be to train teachers to develop their moral, mental, and physical abilities satisfactorily, and to make them know the methods of guiding pupils to develop in the same manner. For example the students should appreciate the importance of responsible parenthood, personal integrity, and social responsibility. Some failings of the larger society namely, alcoholism, unpunctuality, excessive noise and lack of periods for reflection are not expected in a teachers' college, and such local customs as greeting, visits to the sick, or readiness to help the needy come under the concept of desirable aspects of the social structure.

Teacher education should not ignore these factors if it is to achieve its goal.

The next component of the societal factors is the "Economy." This was described in relation to the study area in the first chapter. There is no doubt that the society needs improved agriculture, viable industries, efficient production, discreet consumption, effective distribution system, and sense of conservation. To this end, science and technology must come into play. Teachers' colleges can play an indirect, but by no means unessential part in the development of the economy by teaching science, mathematics, commercial, and technical subjects effectively. It has been observed that mathematics is not a compulsory subject in the Grade II colleges and that there is serious lack of adequate science equipment. Commercial and technical subjects are taught in the University Faculty of Education, and are now being introduced in the Alvan Ikoku College of Education. The goal should be to train teachers who can teach the youth the knowledge, habits, attitudes, and skills required for the ultimate improvement of the economy.

On the other hand, unless an adequate institutional arrangement is made, the aims of teacher education can hardly be realized. In the model, the term "physical plant" refers to the buildings, equipment, and facilities necessary for the institution to operate efficiently. The

teaching personnel or teacher educators must be qualified for their jobs and the administration must be properly staffed. The desiderata in this regard in the East Central State training colleges were pointed out in chapter four. In the training college situation, the administration is concerned roughly with six areas: the college program, the student personnel, the staff personnel, community relations, physical facilities, and management. Each of these areas requires the processes of planning, decision-making, organizing, co-ordinating, communicating, influencing, and evaluation. The institutional goal could be stated as, to have a system of co-ordinated teachers' colleges, properly staffed, adequately equipped, and effectively administered.

The education of a professional man requires at least three basic things:

1. Specific professional content or the bodies of information appropriate to the profession.

2. Foundation courses about the profession.

3. Laboratory periods for application.²⁰ In the model, these three basic things are listed as:

- (a) special subjects;
- (b) educational theory;
- (c) practice.

²⁰ Association for Student Teaching, 47th Year Book, Washington, D.C., 1968, p. 67.

The curriculum problems were discussed in chapter five, and it was shown that

- (a) too many subjects are required for success in the Grade II Teachers' Examination, thus allowing little or no room for specialization in any one of them;
- (b) teaching practice is not properly organized so that student-teachers do not acquire enough teaching skills during their training period.

Appendix A shows that education theory is discussed in the abstract and not sufficiently related to what goes on in the schools. Such deterministic descriptions as normal and abnormal children are included and there is no definition of the curriculum goals. The curriculum followed should enable the student-teacher to acquire those competencies which he requires in his future role as a professional teacher. These include:

- (a) Knowledge of particular disciplines.
- (b) Ability to communicate his ideas clearly and simply, orally, and in writing.
- (c) Knowledge of learning theories, the sociology of school, and a repertoire of instructional skills he can draw upon.
- (d) Ability to diagnose pupil needs and learning problems and to seek ways to

effect remedy by himself, or where necessary through the co-operation of parents, the medical profession, or other helping agencies.

- (e) Ability to adapt material to the needs of his pupils and to make effective use of simple teaching aids.
- (f) Ability to use simple formal and informal evaluation techniques and to employ these as a basis for improvement and remedial teaching.
- (g) Ability to know how to acquire knowledge and to keep abreast of developments in his field.
- (h) Ability to co-operate with others in analyzing and finding solutions to teaching problems.

Thus the model provides a simple conceptual framework that could be used as one of the ways to define the goals of teacher education clearly and comprehensively.²¹

²¹Although written for an advanced society, a useful source of ideas is: Coutts, H. T. and Clarke, S. C. T., The Goals of Teacher Education, Alberta Teachers' Association, 1972. It also shows how a set of acceptable goals can be empirically determined.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, THEIR IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Introduction

It is the purpose of this chapter to summarize the main findings of the study. Included are the implications of the recommendations resulting from the investigation, as well as suggestions for further research.

1. Summary of Findings

The objectives of the study were to trace the development of teacher education in the East Central State of Nigeria, from the background of the beginnings of education in the area; to find out the major problems associated with it, and to make recommendations for improvement. Traditional education had no professional teachers as such though its direct method of teaching is worthy of consideration by modern teacher educators. The missionaries established the first teachers' colleges in the State to prepare people to teach in their schools and to help to spread the Gospel. The initial funds came from Overseas, but later the Government stepped in to regulate and to co-operate in the work of training teachers. As the local people began to sense the economic and social

advantages of schooling, the demand for education grew apace; teachers became scarce, and in time training institutions multiplied. This led to the dilution of the quality of the products and to lower educational standards. Soon after National Independence, the problem was acutely felt. The remedies adopted included the closure of the one-year probationary training centres, the discontinuance of the Grade III teachers' colleges, the upgrading of the Rural Education Centre to a two-year college, the establishment of the Advanced Teacher Training College, and the inauguration of a Bachelor of Education degree programme in the local university. The Civil War dealt a heavy blow on the school system, and as a step towards post-war reconstruction, the State took over the control and management of educational institutions.

An essential part of the reconstruction of the school system is the training of teachers. Attention should, therefore, be paid to the following desiderata which this investigation uncovered:

1. Teacher education is in need of greater clarity of goal definition.
2. The number, type, and size of the various teacher training institutions have to be determined and each institution has to be supplied with the facilities and the teaching and administrative personnel it requires in order to function efficiently.

3. The entire teacher education system needs to be co-ordinated to remove duplication of effort, to effect economy, and to eliminate unnecessary institutions.

4. The curriculum of teachers' colleges requires to be up-dated. Teacher educators have to participate in this. Problem solving approach to curriculum revision should be preferred to the information acquisition approach. Each teachers' institution requires a system of regular evaluation of its programme.

5. The institutions for training teachers need a good measure of autonomy in the modification of their programmes to suit local conditions and in the stipulation of criteria for success. The limitations imposed by final external examinations require to be modified.

6. The professional aspect of the teachers' training is not at the moment sufficiently emphasized. Perfunctory and desultory scheduling of teaching practice does not give the students the opportunity to acquire the seriousness of purpose which their profession requires. It is time the training colleges started supervised internship programmes in addition to any practical briefing the students may have in college.

7. At this period when there are such rapid changes and developments in knowledge, it is reasonable to expect a student teacher to specialize in a particular area of study while retaining his breadth of outlook and avoiding

a narrow view of his profession. There are now various functions in the school situation which should, in fact, call for special preparation. These include teaching at various grades, special subject teaching, educational administration, librarianship and laboratory management. Teacher education institutions need to provide opportunities for the development of specialist skills. This calls for sufficient variety in the qualifications of the staff. Consequently, the size of the training institutions should not be too small to make this impossible.

8. Modernization of teacher education as a whole requires to be buttressed by a definite programme of in-service education for teachers. As John Wilson observes:

It is not possible to effect a change in education without the most vigorous, systematic in-service training of existing teachers. Without such training the enthusiasm, new ideas, and practice of young teachers are overwhelmed by the traditions of the profession, or at least, take effect only very slowly, indeed so slowly that what once was new and developing is itself out of date before it is fully accepted.¹

9. Both in pre-service and in-service training of teachers there appears to be the need to use simple audio-visual media to supplement the usual "chalk and talk."

¹Wilson, John. Education and Changing West African Culture. New York: Columbia University Teachers' College, 1963, p. 43.

The Audio-Visual Centre in the State capital and the local T.V. and Broadcasting Station provide services which teacher training colleges can patronise. With proper arrangement, programmes can be run by these agencies specifically for student-teachers and teachers in schools.

2. Implications

The recommendations contained in this study have implications for the State School Board, the State Ministry of Education, the Teachers' Association (N.U.T.) and general implications for such a developing country as Nigeria.

The State School Board

The board manages the institutions for the training of elementary school teachers. To make it possible for the teachers' colleges to arrange internships on a permanent basis, the co-operation of the Board will be necessary so that the interns get the agreed salaries or allowances, so that the co-operating teachers trained by the teachers' colleges are financially encouraged and not transferred from the schools without consultations with the colleges. The Board will also influence the intake into the colleges by making available statistics on teacher need for the

schools as well as participate in the co-ordination of the teachers' institutions in the State.

The Ministry of Education

Since the Ministry determines the overall educational policy in the State, it will be its responsibility to form the Board that will co-ordinate the work of the training colleges. The Ministry has to define, possibly with the aid of the other educational agencies, the goals of teacher education in terms that can be readily understood, applied, and regularly evaluated by the teacher trainers. The determination of training college admission and certification policies lie with the Ministry.

The Local Teachers' Association (N.U.T.)

Hitherto, the local N.U.T. appears to have concerned itself almost exclusively with the demand for better service conditions for teachers. Although this is important, it would still be worthwhile for the Association to get involved in the overall attempt to improve teacher education in the State. It could form curriculum panels who can interact with teacher trainers in finding solutions to the curriculum problems of both the schools and the teachers institu-

tions. As a body, the Association can participate in curriculum revision projects and help in arranging regular in-service courses in the training colleges. It should also be interested in the c-ordination of the work of the teachers' institutions.

General Implications

The question often arises whether the path to social and economic progress in such an area as the one studied, lies in having schools and professional teachers, especially since education is mistaken for paper qualifications and since the maintenance of schools is a costly affair. People like Ivan Illich advocate the abolition of schools. He wrote a hotly debated article on "The Futility of Schooling in Latin America,"² and published a widely read book entitled Deschooling Society.³ Rene Dumont the famous French economist, wrote an article with the title "If Your Sister Goes to School, Your Next Meal will be Your Fountain Pen."⁴ The article in effect talked of the

²Illich, Ivan. "The Futility of Schooling in Latin America:" Saturday Review, April 20, 1968.

³Illich, Ivan. Deschooling Society. New York, Harper and Row, 1970.

⁴Dumont, Rene. "If Your Sister Goes To School

uselessness of the school system in Africa.

That a particular precious commodity can be misused does not detract from its inherent usefulness, and that schooling can be abused does not nullify its capacity for good. This study was undertaken because the first step in the proper utilization of the school system is to have enlightened and competent teachers to run it. Schools are in fact essential for the development of the individual and for the modernization of society in less developed countries. The illiterate mind is incapacitated in many fields of human endeavour. One cannot fail to agree with John McLeish, who wrote as follows:

As far as the individual is concerned, the starting point must surely be the recognition that man's highest powers as a rational being depend upon the ability to communicate abstract ideas. At the highest level this involves recording one's experience in a form which renders it available for future examination and analysis. . . . Reflection at any depth, and critical thinking, are hardly possible for the illiterate man.... Rumour, opinion, authority, are the bases on which his

Footnote 4 (continued)

Your Next Meal will be Your Fountain Pen," in education and National Building in Africa, (ed.) by L. Cowan et al, F. Praeger, 1966, p. 258. Quoted by M. K. Bacchus in "Some Developments and Problems of Teacher Education in the Third World." Unpublished, 1971.

thought and attitudes are erected. Whilst literacy does not guarantee that the individual will be automatically liberated from the idols of the imagination and the marketplace, in its absence it is only the very exceptional village peasant who can free himself from the commonplace and the traditional in his mental operations and social reactions. The survival over many millenia of the most primeval techniques and apparatus of husbandry is a living illustration of the terrible bondage to tradition which illiteracy imposes on the unreflective peasant.⁵

The rest of McLeish's argument can be summarized as follows:

1. Oral communication limits man to the immediate present. Some ordering or structuring of knowledge has resulted not by oral communication, but by the writings of generations of literate thinkers. It is through reading and writing that the individual can transcend time and space and share the sympathies of past ages or people never seen.
2. Literacy makes the existence of secondary groups possible. Corporations, trade associations, nationalities, and establishments on a national scale cannot survive without it.
3. Genuine feelings of patriotism, humanism, universal brotherhood of man and religious

⁵McLeish, John. Evangelical Religion and Popular Education. London: Methuen, 1969, pp. 171-175.

consciousness freed from mere self-interest are beyond the capabilities of the illiterate mind.

4. Literacy lays the foundation on which it is possible to erect a sensitivity of feeling, a sympathetic appreciation of the needs of persons unseen and a knowledge of the functioning of institutions whose ramifications are invisible.

There is no question here of equating literacy with schooling or schooling with education, but the best way to ensure permanent literacy and systematic education is to have a viable school system with dedicated professional teachers. The nation needs citizens who can appreciate the meanings of national development, international commitments, public welfare, and the rule of law as distinct from the quest for private gain. Furthermore, in the words of Gardner,⁶ a former United States Commissioner for Education, the Nigerian nation has certain commitments all of which require understanding and appreciation through education. These are:

1. A commitment to build an enduring peace based

⁶Quoted by H. T. Coutts in "Preparing the Teachers We Need." Unpublished Paper, May 1970, pp. 3-4.

on mutual understanding, tolerance, and adherence to the rule of law at home and in the world.

2. A commitment to eliminate illiteracy and poverty and to meet the expectations of the people on the economic and social level to a substantial degree.

3. A commitment to equal opportunity regardless of creed, language, or tribe.

4. A commitment to improve urban and rural life by resolving the problems of crime, slum housing, inadequate health facilities, and poor transportation and distribution network.

5. A commitment to a democratic system of government that will meet the needs of society at all levels, local, state, and national.

6. A commitment to balanced economic growth.

7. A commitment to provide citizens with the opportunity for self-realization through productive and satisfying life.

In Lerner's study of the Middle East, he found that the key to modernization lay in what he referred to as the "participant society," that is, one in which people go through school, read newspapers, are in the wage and market economy, participate politically through elections, and change opinions on matters of public business. Modernization developed sequentially through urbanization, literacy, and media participation to a

stage in which individuals participated in all sectors of the social system. Literacy proved to be not only a key variable in moving from a traditional to a transitional society, but also the pivotal agent in the transition to a fully participant society.⁷

Investment in education is therefore necessary for national growth, and investment in teacher education is necessary for an effective education system. The national income of Nigeria is growing at the rate of over ten per cent per annum. Table XXV gives an idea of the increase in the value of Nigeria's exports in recent years. It is reasonable to expect that funds will continue to be available for investment in education. What is required is to appreciate the importance of teacher education in the total educational scheme.

TABLE XXV

The Value of Nigeria's Exports, 1962-1971
in Million Pounds Sterling⁸

Year	Value (Million Pounds)
1962	168.6
1963	189.7
1964	214.7
1965	268.3
1966	284.1
1967	241.8
1968	211.1
1969	318.1
1970	442.7
1971	648.7

⁷Lerner, Daniel. The Passing of Traditional Society: Modernizing the Middle East. Free. 1958. Reported by Hanson, John W. in Encyclopaedia of Educational Research. Macmillan, 1969, p. 346.

3. Suggestions for Further Research re Teacher Education

Certain specific questions arise from this investigation that are worthy of further research:

1. What proportion and which categories of trained teachers seek employment outside the State?

2. How do the systems of teacher training and institution funding differ in the various States of Nigeria?

3. What is the effect (a) on the University Faculty of Education (b) on secondary school work, of paying degree holders with teaching qualifications and those without teaching qualifications the same initial salary as recommended by the Udoji Commission?⁹

4. What is the attitude of practising teachers towards their teacher training programmes?

5. What changes are evident in the academic and social background of the students who seek admission into training colleges, as a result of the abolition of student allowances and the introduction of fees for student teachers? These questions provide future researchers with problems of worthwhile significance to teacher educators in the area.

⁸Source: Nigeria Year Book, A Daily Times Publication, Apapa, 1973, p. 62. The Federal Government has undertaken to foot the bill of training teachers for the Universal Primary Education Programme. Daily Times. August 8, 1974.

⁹The Udoji Commission was set up by the Federal Government in 1972 to review the salaries of public servants throughout the Federation.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

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- APPENDIX B: Rural Education Teachers' Syllabus.
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A P P E N D I X A

Conditions for the Award of the
Grade I Teachers Certificate, and
the Grade II Training College
Syllabus.

A P P E N D I X A

GRADE II TRAINING COLLEGE SYLLABUS

SYLLABUS OF SUBJECTS AND CONDITIONS OF AWARD

GRADES I AND II

The following Syllabuses and conditions of award of the Teachers' Certificates are published for general information in accordance with Regulation 23 (2) of the Education Regulations, 1949, made under Education Ordinance (Ordinance No. 39) of 1948:

TEACHERS' CERTIFICATE - GRADE I

There will be no examination for the award of this certificate. Certificates will be issued to teachers who hold Grade II or Higher Elementary Certificates who had at least five years satisfactory teaching experience after obtaining such certificates and who, in addition, satisfy the following conditions:

1. They have completed and reached a certain standard in a special subject training course approved by the Inspector-General of Education for the purpose. If the Inspector-General so directs, they will not be deemed to have completed the course satisfactorily until they have passed a practical test in teaching the subject in a school in which they are employed.

At present special courses are held for Agriculture at Ibadan and Umuahia.

2. They shall have passed one of the following examinations: (a) the Intermediate Examination of London University; (b) the Cambridge Overseas Higher School Certificate; or (c) the London University General Certificate of Education provided they shall have passed in at least two of the subjects listed below, which must be as Main Subjects in the case of (b) and at Advanced Level in the case of (c) The Subjects are: English Literature; Geography; Religious Knowledge; Pure Mathematics; Physics; Chemistry; Biology. (Until December 31, 1953, Candidates will be allowed to count a subject they have passed in the Teachers' Senior Certificate Examination as one of the two subjects required under this rule.)

The Inspector-General of Education may direct that a candidate shall have to pass a practical examination in teaching also, before the certificate can be issued. The Subject or Subjects in which Students qualify will be endorsed on their certificates and they will be allowed to teach such subjects only in classes above Secondary 11.

TEACHERS' CERTIFICATE-GRADE II

Conditions of Award

The Teachers' Certificate - Grade II, will be awarded to those candidates who have satisfactorily completed a

course of training in an Institution approved by the Inspector-General of Education for the purpose. The course shall last for not less than two years for those students who already hold one of the following qualifications:

1. Teachers' Certificate - Grade III.
2. Teachers' Elementary Certificate.
3. Cambridge Overseas School Certificate.
4. London Matriculation.
5. London University General Certificate of Education.
6. of Secondary VI Certificate (Northern Region only).

For all other candidates the course shall last for not less than four years. To complete the course satisfactorily students must:

(a) Satisfy the Regional Inspectorate during the last year of the course in practical tests in (1) Class Teaching, (2) Physical Training, Training and Games.

(b) Pass an examination set by the Department of Education in December of the last year of the course in (3) Principles and practice of Education, (4) English Language, Comprehension and Grammar, (5) Arithmetical Processes.

(c) Pass an examination set during the last year of the course by the Principal of the Training Institution in consultation with the Regional Inspectorate, in (6) Physical and Health Education, (7) English Literature, (8) History, (9) Geography, (10) Practical Mathematics; and

(d) Reach a standard satisfactory to the Regional Inspectorate in consultation with the principal of the Institution in not more than FIVE and not less than TWO of the following subjects, of which at least ONE must be in Group I.

GROUP I

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 11. Practical Rural Science | 12. Practical Domestic Science |
| 13. Handicrafts | 14. Drawing and Painting |
| 15. Needlework and Dress-Making | 16. Music. |

GROUP II

- | | |
|---|---|
| 17. Advanced English | 18. Advanced History, or Advanced History (Islamic) |
| | 19. Advanced Geography |
| 20. Mathematics, or Advanced Mathematics | |
| 21. Religious knowledge (Catholic, Protestant, or Muslim) | |
| 22. Theory of Domestic Science | |
| 23. Applied Biology, or Theory of Rural Science, or Nature Study, | |
| 24. An approved African Language | |
| 25. Arabic. | |

NOTES: (a) Candidates offering Practical Rural Science must also offer Theory of Rural Science or Applied Biology, and vice versa except that women offering Applied Biology need not offer Practical Rural Science.

(b) Candidates offering Theory of Domestic Science must also offer Practical Domestic Science.

The optional subjects in which candidates reach a satisfactory

standard and all subjects in which they are awarded a credit will be endorsed on their certificates. Optional subjects in Group I will be judged by an inspection of the candidates' work during the course, or, where this is not suitable, by a practical test. Subjects in Group II will be judged by an examination set during the last year of the course by an examination set by the principal of the Institution in consultation with the Regional Inspectorate.

DETAILED SYLLABUSES

1. Class Teaching. This will be based upon consultation between the Inspecting Officer and the Principal of the Institution and will take into account the records of the candidate's progress during training. Candidates will also be expected to pass a test in Spoken English.
2. Physical Training and Games: This will be tested by an inspection of practical work of teaching. In the course, attention should be given to the practical performance of:

The physical exercises and games of the Board of Education Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools, 1933, and its accompanying pamphlet entitled "Suggested in Regard to Games." These should be adapted to African conditions. The Organized Games and Athletic exercises suitable for children of school age, and to the branches of the subject detailed under Number 6; Physical and Health Education.

3. Principles and Practice of Education. Section (a):

General Principles and Methods.

1. The meaning and aims of education, from the point of view of the individual, the family, and the community. Educational agencies--the home, the school, the church, or other society, the community at large; the part played by each, and their interrelation.

GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

2. The Normal child, the main stages and outstanding features of individual and social development through infancy, childhood and adolescence.
The abnormal child; physically and mentally handicapped children; the development of anti-social tendencies leading to juvenile delinquency. Methods of dealing with such children. Development of normal and abnormal tendencies associated with sex. Sex instruction, arguments for and against giving such instruction in school.
3. General and special intellectual abilities. The learning process; habit formation; skill; memory; fatigue; imagery; imagination; thought; language; character training; emotional expression; incentives; sentiments; will.
4. Nature of discipline in school and class. School organization, prefectorial and house system. General classroom

technique; incentives and punishment in the classroom. Individual and Group work. Division of class into slow and fast "streams" - pros and cons.

5. The objects and technique of conducting different types of examinations--entrance and scholarship, promotion and leaving examinations. Intelligence tests. Ballard type tests, "essay" answers. Individual records of progress, daily or weekly marks, their uses and abuse: Marking papers, recording of marks, and uses to be made of mark sheets in awarding promotions and drawing up schemes of work for the following year.
6. Place and value of various subjects in school curriculum. Place of the vernacular in Nigerian education. Music and art, manual work, physical education. Correlation of Subjects. Adaptation of curriculum to local needs and conditions. Preparation of schemes of work and lesson notes, keeping of records, timetables.
7. The System of education in Nigeria. The main types of schools and colleges provided or assisted by public authority; their relation with one another, and with the home and other agencies affecting the welfare and education of children. Regulations concerning education in Nigeria.
7. The better-known systems of Infant and Primary School work and their adaptation to West African conditions.

Section (b) Methods of Teaching Infant and Primary School work; Standards I and II.

The methods of teaching the various subjects in the Infant and Standards I and II curriculum of the Education Department publication Suggestions and Syllabuses for Junior Primary Classes. For Drawing, See Suggestions and Syllabuses for Senior Primary Classes (1948), pp. 131-156.

Section (c). Methods of Teaching Standards III to V. The methods of teaching the various subjects in the standards III to VI curriculum of the 1948 Education Department Suggestions and Syllabuses for Senior Primary Classes.

NOTE: There will be alternative questions on the Northern Primary School Syllabus wherever necessary.

4. English Language, Comprehension and Grammar.

Sentence making, punctuation, vocabulary, grammar, and comprehension.

5. Arithmetical Processes.

1. (a) The first four rules applied to numbers, money, length, weight, time, and capacity.
 (b) Processes connected with the above including Reductions; Simple Practice; Short methods of money calculation and accounts.
2. Prime factors; Rules of divisibility; Index notation; Square Root; Simple examples of H.C.F. and L.C.M.
3. Fractions and decimals; fractions of numbers and concrete quantities; including simple decimalization of money and some knowledge of significant figures and approximation.

4. Unitary method. Ratio and Proportion. Averages. Percentages. Simple interest. Profit and Loss. Rate of Working and Simple Speeds. Rates and Taxes.
5. Rectangular area and volume. Area of triangle as half base times height. Area of trapezium and parallelogram. Volume of simple prisms.
6. Simple Foreign exchange. French and American Coinage.
7. Simple Metric System. Comparison of litres, Kilometres, Kilograms, and so on, with corresponding British units.

NOTES: (a) Special emphasis will be laid on accuracy, neatness, and lay-out.

(b) "Long Division" method of H.F.C., contracted methods of long multiplication and division, and all sums involving unreasonably heavy computation will be omitted. Questions will be confined to the simple principles and their practical applications.

6. Physical and Health Education

Physical Education: The principles and practical methods of teaching and conducting physical exercises and games (including organized games and athletic exercises)

Health Education: The course is intended to familiarise students with the general principles of hygiene

with a view to their practical application by them, when they have become teachers, in the educational and personal interest of the children who are placed in their charge. It is not meant to be a syllabus upon which instruction should be given to children, and no attempt should be made to use it that way. The requirements of healthy living and how they are best provided in the home and in the school.

- a. Foods and Drinks: Composition; value; amount; purity; selection. The meaning of good and poor nutrition.
- b. Fresh Air: Principles of good ventilation. Effects of a "stuffy" atmosphere.
- c. Lights: Principles and importance of good illumination.
- d. Exercise: The importance of the provision of planned physical exercise and relaxation.
- e. Warmth: The maintenance and regulation of body heat and its relation to ventilation and clothing.
- f. Rest and Sleep: Reasons and conditions for ample provision of these, for children of all ages.
- g. Cleanliness: The relation of cleanliness to health.
- h. Home and School: Surroundings; planning; construction, and equipment.

Children in Abnormal Surroundings of Condition of Health:

- (i) The recognition of the beginnings of the departure from normal health, both physical and mental. The different causes so far as they can be ascertained.
- (ii) The causes, symptoms, and possible prevention of the common disorders of children, to include the infectious diseases and their control; defects of vision, hearing, and speech; deformities; rheumatism; tuberculosis; typical diseases.
- (iii) Preparation for, and first-aid treatment of injury and illness in the home, school, and playground.

7. English Literature

The books to be studied will be selected by the Principal of the Institution in consultation with the Regional Inspectorate, and will include:

Prose: At least SIX books from the works of at least THREE authors.

Poetry: Any good anthology to be studied with special reference to poems suitable for children. Students should be encouraged to study other books and make their own anthologies. The candidates' reading will be tested by general questions only, and no questions will be set on contexts or on the meaning of isolated words or phrases.

8. A. History

The History of Western Civilization.

- (i) Primitive Man: How he lived; the domestication of animals, and the development of agriculture;

the effect of these discoveries on his way of life.

- (ii) Early Civilization: The contribution of Egypt, Mesopotamia, Greece, and Rome to the development of Western Civilization. Judaism, Christianity, and Islam. The Barbarian Invasions.
- (iii) Medieval Times: The early Frankish Kingdom; Charlemagne; Pope and Empire. The Feudal System. The Crusades and their influence on European life. Growth of National Feeling. Increase in the use of money: Trade; Growth of the Medieval Towns; The new spirit of enquiry; the Renaissance. The Reformation.
- (iv) Modern Times: The great discoveries. The rise of modern industry. The establishment and expansion of the nation state. The struggle for international co-operation.

B. Nigerian History

- (i) Origins: The early history, in brief, of the principal Nigerian tribes, particular attention being given to the main tribes to which the students belong.
- (ii) The Exploration and Opening up of Nigeria: West Africa's long isolation. The coming of Islam. Slavery and the slave trade. The great explorers and their discoveries. The establishment of Christian missions. The growth of trade and the establishment of trading companies.

(iii) The British Connection: Early British connection with Nigeria. The state of Nigeria in 1850. The establishment of British Suzerainty and the pacification of the Country.

(iv) The Government of Nigeria: The System of Indirect Rule. Native Administration. The Central Government--its constitution, legislative, executive, judiciary. Taxation.

9. Geography

The aim of the teaching throughout should be to develop the student's power of observation and imagination, so that when he reads a description of a place he has not visited or studies a map or looks at pictures of it, he can imagine what the place is really like.

Local geography is important because here the student learns to observe the country round him, and to record what he sees, first in models, and then in maps. At all stages, maps, pictures, and specimens; for example, rocks, crops, should be closely associated with each other, and all should be used to throw light on the conditions of living of the people in the areas studied, and of the physical causes underlying these conditions.

A. Local Survey:

Methods of studying local geography applied to the district in which the College is situated; the study, use, and reading of maps.

B. Physical Geography:

- (a) The earth as one of the planets; day and night; the seasons; latitudes and longitude.
- (b) The distribution of land and water; relief of continental land masses.
- (c) The major land forms. Weathering, and the work of water, wind, and ice as agents of land sculpture. The formation of soils.
- (d) The movements of the oceans with special reference to the effect of ocean currents in climate.
- (e) Composition of the atmosphere; temperature; pressure and winds; humidity, clouds and rainfall; weather observations and the use and care of simple instruments; major climatic regions of the world.
- (f) Study, use, and reading of maps, atlases and the globe; drawing of diagrams; geographical use of photographs.

C. Major Natural Regions of the World:

Vegetation and human activities in:

- (a) Equatorial forests. (b) Tropical grasslands, scrublands and desert. (c) The Monsoon regions. (d) Mediterranean lands. (f) Deciduous and coniferous forests of the temperate regions. (g) Tundras and cold deserts

D. Regional Geography:

- (a) The Continent of Africa, with Nigeria in detail.
- (b) The Industrialized regions of Western Europe and North America in outline.

- (c) World communications and trade routes and traffic along these.

10. Practical Mathematics

1. Personal accounts. Profit and loss account. Balance sheets; Cash and Bank accounts; Cheques. Bank charges. Post Office Savings Bank. Income tax and other forms of taxation. Postage rates.
2. Estimation and measurement of distances and areas. Calculation of areas in acres and square chains. Use of geometrical instruments. Scale plans of plots of land of various shapes. Plans and elevations of simple furniture and buildings.
3. Graphs of rainfall, temperature, crop yields, market prices, and so on.
4. Estimation of weights. Practical work using different types of weighing machines. Comparison of market measures with standard measures and weights.
5. Cubic capacity. Bottles, native pots, petrol tins, cigarette tins, and so on, compared with standard measures. Estimation and measurement of capacities of water tanks, rooms, and so on.
6. a. (Women). Market prices and catering costs. Costs connected with dress-making.
- b. (Men). Furniture and building materials--estimation of quantities and cost of materials. Timbers of different sizes, bricks, roofing materials, and so on.

11. Practical Rural Science

The Syllabus will be the same as that of the new Rural Science Syllabus for Senior Primary Schools, which covers practical farming, gardening, animal husbandry, and other practical activities. The teacher in charge of the courses must adapt the syllabus to the conditions of his own locality, and must adapt a system of farming approved by an Agricultural Officer or Rural Education Officer. The farm work form the basis of a Young Farmer's work as much as possible on their own responsibility.

12. Practical Domestic Science

Cookery: African cookery according to locality. Cooking of meat, fish, fowl, eggs, vegetables, and fruits. English dishes with African foodstuffs as base; stuffing or garnish. Basic recipes with variations; batter; scones; cakes. Palm-wine and yeast bread. Preserves; lemon curd, marmalade, chutney. Salads; fruit drinks. Meals for infants, invalids, toddlers and school children. Packed meals. Food values of all foodstuffs used. Full use of diagrams. Planning of mixed diet. Preservation of food in the tropics and reasons for it.

Laundrywork: Washing and ironing of white and coloured cotton, linen, wool, silk, and rayon; including personal garments and household articles. Removal of stains; Beverages, fat, protein, ink, ironmould, mildew,

and general discolouration. Use of dyes. Making of starch and soap from local materials. Ironing frills, pleats, gathers, embroidery, infants' garments, and so on.

Housewifery: Household cleaning; use of local and proprietary cleaning agents. Treatment of all surfaces in the home; including lamps, filters, and refrigerators. Management of same. Making of polishes, stains, and dyes. Household routine; daily, weekly, and seasonal. Preparation of rooms for meetings or family gatherings. Laying of tables and trays; serving meals. Washing up after meals. Infant and invalid care. Simple first-aid and treatment of common ailments. Disposal of refuse; eradication of pests. Household management, including simple accounts. Inventories and accounts for Domestic Science Centres and Classes. Domestic Science Class organization.

13. Handicrafts

Candidates will be expected to show proficiency in at least ONE craft chosen from the following list: Woodcarving including calabash decoration. Modelling, Basketry, Weaving, Carpentry. Book-binding, Leather-work. Raffia-work, or any other craft approved jointly by the Principal and Regional Inspectorate. Candidates will also be expected to show finished specimens made entirely by themselves in at least one other craft from the above list.

A record should be kept showing the progress made by each candidate in handicraft during his training.

14. Drawing and Painting

Candidates will be expected to show finished work done entirely by themselves during their training, in the forms of drawing and painting described in the chapter on Drawing: Primary--in the Education Department's Suggestions and Syllabus for Senior Primary Classes, 1948, pp. 131-156. Mural decoration may be included. Note that Mechanical Drawing is to be ometted.

15. Needlework and Dressmaking

The examination will consist of an inspection of the candidate's work done during the course, including specimens of work based on Standards I to VI of the Primary Syllabus. Candidates will be expected to have as many as possible of the following specimens completed for inspection:

- Group A. 1. Teaching equipment including a selection of small articles suitable for Standards 1 and 11 with accompanying large scale specimens of every process.
2. A selection of embroidery designs for handkerchiefs, household covers and underwear, with suggestions for appropriate stitches and colours.
3. Pattern blocks to fit the candidate for bodice, skirt, knickers, and sleeves. Pattern blocks for infants' and children's garments.
4. Notes of lessons.

Group B. Knitted garment for candidate or infant.

- Group C. 1. Cotton suit for boy of two to three years.
 2. Child's frock.
 3. Infant's garment.
 4. Knickers and slip to fit the candidate.
 5. Choice of embroidered cloth, mats, or cushion cover showing at least four different embroidery stitches.

Notes: Smocking must be shown on 1, 2, or 3 with large scale specimen.

Group D. Dress or skirt and blouse to fit the candidate.

Group E. Worn garments showing repairs, with large scale specimens of hedge tear darn, stocking darn, calicoe and print patch. The above practical work will be based on the following:

A. Needlework

1. Basic stitches, hems, seams.
2. Neatness of edges; crossway binding and facing.
3. Attachment of buttons; worked button-holes; eyelet holes.
4. Attachment of tapes.
5. Regulation of fulness; gathers and smocking.
6. Openings and fastenings for underwear and children's garments.
7. Drafting of patterns, children's and infants' blocks (to fit the candidate) for undergarments.
8. Renovations; darning, patching, and re-inforcing of household and personal articles and garments.

9. Embroidery and trimming, line and edge stitches, attachment of lace, hemstitching, filling stitches, applique, shadow work and smocking.
10. Choice of colours; contrasts, harmonies applied to personal garments and household covers.

B.

1. Nature of fabrics: cotton, linen, rayon, silk, nylon, plastic, and velvet; suitability for various purposes.
2. Pattern making. personal measurement chart; adaption of bought patterns, blocks for bodice, skirt, knickers and sleeves.
3. Calculation of amounts and cost.
4. Layout, cutting, and preparation for fitting; use of straight and cross thread of the material.
5. Correction to figure requirements.
6. Seams and neatness of edges.
7. Openings and fastenings.
8. Bound buttonholes.
9. Regulation of fulness; darts, pleats, and tucks.
10. Patch pockets.
11. Sleeves; insertion with suitable regulation of fulness.
12. Flat and roll collars.
13. Choice of suitable trimmings.

C. General

1. Use and care of the sewing machine; care and correction of common faults.
2. Pressing methods; choice and care of equipment.

3. Storing of garments in school; accounts; record books; calculation of quantities for classes; planning of lessons; notes of lessons; planning a scheme; class organization.

16. Music

1. To write down in tonic solfa or staff notation, with rhythm, melodies sung or played.
2. To sing at sight simple melodies written in tonic solfa.
3. To sing or play at sight: (a) a melody (b) a rhythm from staff notation.
4. To sing (and play if desired) two songs, one in English, one in the vernacular.
5. Reproduce a given rhythm. (Tapped or clapped).
6. Either sing or play a selection of exercises suitable for use in the teaching of singing to children.
7. To conduct and criticize a class of children singing: (a) in English (b) in the vernacular; and to write on a blackboard the words and tonic solfa of a song to teach the children.
8. Principles and methods of teaching and conducting school music.
9. Voice production, and correction of common faults in singing.
10. To transcribe melodies from staff notation to tonic solfa and vice versa
11. Tradition of vernacular music and its possible development.

17. Advanced English

Literature: Three set books to be chosen from lists of

books selected by the Principal of the College and approved by the Regional Inspectorate. Questions will be asked to test the candidate's familiarity with the text, and understanding of the matter, by the candidate's being required to trace in selected passages the development of the author's choice of words and phrases, and their significance. There will be no context questions.

An Outline of the Development of English Literature:

Candidates should know something of the contribution of Greek and Latin Literature to English Literature, of the influence of the Bible on it, and of the period background of the most important English writers, particularly of those writers he has studied.

An Outline of the Growth of the English Language:

A simple study of the growth of English from varied sources, and its present development through the influence of the press, films, scientific discovery, and so on, approached from the angle of present day English.

18. Advanced History

Candidates will be expected to have a general knowledge of the whole syllabus, and to have studied one of three sections in greater detail. The emphasis throughout should be not on theory, but on personalities and events that have influenced development.

1. Development of Government.

- a. Preliminary: Custom; Taboo, and so on. Patriarchal Government. Slave Empires.

(b) Greek City States: Geographical influences--dividing and unifying factors. Kings-Oligarchy-Tyranny-Democracy. Athenian Democracy in practice.

Pericles-Peloponnesian War and Demagogy;

Misuse of Empire (Massacre of Mitylene, and so on).

Inability to unite effectively. (Demosthenes and Philip of Macedonia). Plato and the Republic.

(c) Rome - Democracy and Empire: Winning of Democratic rights. Extension in Italy--Roman Colonies.

Imperialism--Taxation and Exploitation; problems of Landless Proletariat. Re-organization under Augustus.

The Pax Romana; Causes of Decline and Fall.

11. Development of Modern Government (with special reference to Great Britain. Decline of Feudalism and growth of Nation States. (Free cities--English Nationalism--Henry V.)

Parliament in England. Tudor Popular Autocracy. The

Stuarts. The Divine Right of Kings! The 17th Century

Revolution. Cabinet Government. 19th Century Reforms.

Political Parties. Modern Political Practice in England.

Democracy in the Modern World. France. Germany. Italy.

U.S.A., Russia. Plural Societies (e.g. British Commonwealth).

The Road to Self-Government--Ceylon, Jamaica, Trinidad, etc.

International Government.

(b) Advanced History (Islamic) 1. General History of the Byzantine Empire to 632 A.D. (Period 527 A.D. Justinian I's campaigns--to 632 A.D. in some detail).

2. General History of Persia up to 632 A.D. (Period 533 A.D.

Anushirwan Khusraw 1, 632 A.D., in some detail).

3. Pre-Islamic Arabia and the Jahiliyyah.

4. General Muslim History up to 1258 A.D. (656 A.H.).

N.B. Candidates are recommended to pay essential attention to:

a. The Life of the Prophet, especially the period 622-632 A.D.

b. The Umayyads 661-750 A.D.

c. The Fatimids circa 901-1171 A.D.

d. The Crusades, from the Muslim standpoint with especial reference to the life of Saladin; the reasons for their initial success and final failure.

5. History of Egypt 1258-1517 A.D.

6. Outline History of the Turkish Empire 1517-1914 A.D.

N.B. Candidates are recommended to pay especial attention to the history of Egypt in the later part of this period.

7. General History of the Muslim World since 1914 A.D.

19. Advanced Geography

A. Physical Geography. Students will be expected to have a thorough knowledge of Section B (Physical Geography) of the ordinary syllabus, and in addition:

a. Climate: The circulation of the atmosphere; planetary and local winds. The climatic regions of the world (in greater detail); their causes and characteristics, and identification of the major types.

b. The Oceans: Composition, salinity, and temperature of the water in the seas and oceans. Circulation of the ocean waters. and its effect on climate.

c. The Earth's Crust: Sedimentary, igneous, and metamorphic

rocks, with special reference to Nigeria. Movements of the earth's crust and their effects. The origin of soils, and the distribution of the major soil types.

- d. Land Forms: Character and origin of the different types of land forms. Underground water. Rivers and the development of river systems. Glaciers and ice sheets. Coastlines. Desert scenery. Volcanoes; lava flows and igneous intrusions.
- e. Maps: The drawing and interpretation of contour and distribution maps. Relief models.

B. Human and Economic Geography

- 1. Primitive Communities: food-gatherers, hunters, fishing people.
- 2. Pastoral farming, e.g. (i) The Kirghiz of Central Asia. (ii) The Cattle-rearing in East Africa. (iii) Sheep-rearing in Australia. (iv) Stock-rearing in U.S.A. and the Argentine.
- 3. Agriculture, e.g. (i) Shifting cultivation.
 - (ii) The beginning of settled farming in the Fertile Crescent.
 - (iii) Rice-growing in the monsoon lands.
 - (iv) Intensive farming of the Mediterranean lands.
 - (v) Extensive farming of the steppes and prairies.
 - (vi) Mixed farming in Western Europe.
 - (vii) Dairy farming in Denmark.
- 4. Food production: Conditions of production of the

more important foodstuffs (other than those included in 3 above).

5. Raw materials of industry: Conditions of production of the more important raw materials, including minerals.
6. Sources of power.
7. Factors influencing the world distribution of population.

OR C. Regional Geography: One of the following:

- a. The British Isles and Western Europe (i.e. British Isles, France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Denmark, Norway, Sweden).
- b. The United States of America.
- c. The Islamic Countries (i.e. North Africa, the Nile Basin, Turkey, Syria, and Lebanon, Palestine and Trans-Jordan, the Arab States Irac, Iran, Pakistan but excluding Northern Nigeria and the Western Sudan).
- d. The British Empire and Commonwealth (excluding the British Isles, South Africa and the African Colonies).

20. A. Mathematics

Algebra. Generalized Arithmetic. Simple equation. Index notation. First four rules. Linear simultaneous equations. Factors (common, trinominals, difference of two squares). Fractions. Quadratic equations, including formation and use of formula and graphical solutions. Literal equations and change of subject in formulae. Indices and use of logarithms. Further graphical work and its interpretation.

Geometry - A Theoretical.

The following schedule is arranged in a definite sequence. Candidates may be asked to prove any of the theorems marked with an asterisk; they will not be asked to prove the other theorems. Knowledge of the converses of the theorems (when valid) is expected, but their proofs will not be asked for. In proving many theorems, the preceding theorems may be assumed.

Properties of Angles and Parallel Lines:

- * Theorem: The sum of the angle of a triangle is two right angles.

Congruence: The Isosceles triangle. The properties of the angles, sides, and diagonal of the parallelogram, rhombus, rectangle, square, trapezium, and kite.

- * Theorem: In any triangle the line joining the mid-points of any two sides is equal to half the third side and is parallel to it.
- * Theorem: Parallelograms on the same base and between the same parallels have equal area.
- * Theorems: Determining the areas of the parallelogram and triangle.
- * Theorems: If a straight line parallel to one side of a triangle meets the other sides. These are divided proportionally, and the converse.

Similarity of Triangles.

- * The Theorem of Pythagoras: The symmetrical properties of

chords of a circle.

- * Theorem: The angle which an area of circle subtends at the centre is double that which it subtends at any point of the remaining part of the circumference.
- * Theorem: The angle in a semi-circle is a right angle.
- * Theorem: Angles in the same segment of a circle are equal.
- * Theorem: Angles in opposite segments of a circle are supplementary.
- * Theorem: The tangents to a circle from external point are equal. Theorem: If a straight line touches a circle, and from the point of contact a chord be drawn, the angles which this chord makes with the tangent are equal to angles in the alternate segments.
- * Theorem: If two chords of a circle intersect the rectangle contained by the parts of the one is equal to the rectangle contained by the part of the other.
- * Theorem: If from any point outside a circle, a secant and a tangent are drawn, the rectangle contained by the whole secant and part of it outside the circle is equal to the square on the tangent.
- * Theorem: The bisector of an angle of a triangle divides the opposite side in the ratio of the sides containing the angle bisected.
- * Theorem: If a perpendicular is drawn from the right angle of a right-angled triangle to the hypotenuse, the triangles on each side of the perpendicular are similar to the whole triangle and to each other.

Locus of Points in Two Dimensions

- a. which are at a given distance from a given point;
- b. which are at a given distance from a given straight line;
- c. which are equidistant from two given lines;
- e. at which a given segment of a straight line subtends a given angle.

Trigonometry

Definitions of Sine, Cosine, and tangent. Solution of right-angled triangles. Solution of triangles using sine and cosine formulae. The area of a triangle as $\frac{1}{2} a.b. \sin C$.

B. Advanced Mathematics

Co-ordinate Geometry. Forms of the equation of the straight line. (omitting polar co-ordinates). Condition for perpendicularity. Length of perpendicular from a point to a straight line. Equation of the bisector of the angle between two given straight lines. The equation of the circle in the form $(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2 = r^2$.

Calculus

Gradient of a curve. Differentiation. Tangents and normals. Maxima and minima. Differentiation of a function and of products and quotients. Integration. Area under a curve. Volumes of revolution.

Algebra: Theory of quadratic equations. Graphs. Simple Surds. Method of undetermined co-efficients. Arithmetic and Geometric series. The Binomial series.

Trigonometry. The trigonometrical ratios, and their use in solving right-angled triangles. Extension to angles of any equations. Circular measure. Arc length and area of a Sector. Solution of triangles.

A P P E N D I X B

Rural Education Teachers'
Syllabus

A P P E N D I X B

RURAL EDUCATION CENTRE, UMUDIKE

1. AGRICULTURE FIRST YEAR

i. What is Agriculture--narrow and broad definitions of Agriculture. Pre-Agricultural man and the origin of Agriculture.

ii. Systems of Agriculture: Primitive and Shifting Agriculture, Extensive and Intensive Agriculture. Advantages and disadvantages of the various systems of Agriculture.

iii. Field operations: Clearing, burning, tillage, ridging, contour ridging, cross bars, terracing. Reasons for and uses of the various farm operations and other cultural operations necessary for the successful growth of crops. Compare these practices with the local farmers methods and discuss ways of improvement of the local method.

iv. Manures: Types of manures, (Organic and Inorganic), Their uses in Agriculture, Composition and rate of Application. The manufacture of compost manure and Farm-Yard Manure. Green manures and their value. Brief discussion of other organic manures.

v. Rotation of Crops under various soil conditions. Uses and importance of crop rotation.

vi. FARM CROPS: Detailed study of the following crops: yams; cassava; maize; groundnuts; melon; rice; beans; fluted pumpkin, and broadleaved pumpkin.

vii. Management of School and College Farms (including the selection of site). Keeping of Farm Records, Farm Account, Farm Arithmetic.

Soil Science

i. What is soil? History of the earth.

ii. Types of rocks and their origin-(igneous, sedimentary, and metamorphic rocks) in determining ages.

iii. Soil formation, types of soils, effect of the soil forming factors--Parent material, climate, vegetation, topography, and time.

iv. Soil Profile: Soil horizons and their development and refer to E.C.S. soils.

v. Composition of the Soil. How to take soil samples. Separation of the soil into various ingredients by sedimentation in water. Inorganic separates and plant food materials which develop from rock weathering. The properties of clay and sand. Organic Separates; the HUMUS: the properties of humus and its importance as soil constituents. How humus is formed in nature and its effect on vegetation, and agricultural importance. Simple experiments on percolation, and capillarity of water through clay, sand, compost, garden and farm soils. Determination of organic content in a given volume of soil.

vi. Soil Erosion: What is erosion of soil? Causes of erosion and effects of erosion, types of erosion; various erosion measures discussed in detail.

vii. Soil Conservation: Causes of loss of fertility. Importance of soil conservation and methods. Natural methods of maintaining soil fertility.

3. Surveying

i. Various types of land survey.

ii. Various types of instruments used for surveying. Cross-staff; Abney Level; Dumpy Level; Theodolite, and so on, and their use in surveying.

iii. The use of different types of chains in agricultural surveying. Care of the chains.

iv. Use of pegs and poles in ranging straight lines.

v. The use of Field Note-Book.

vi. Triangulations, major observations and how to avoid them--in obstructed vision, vision free.

vii. Scale drawing and preparation of plans from the Field Notebook. Correction of Error.

Practical Exercise: Laying out of School Farms and Gardens; Fruit tree orchards, plantations of economic crops, and so on.

4. Animal Husbandry

- i. The importance of livestock to man and their place in the agricultural system.
- ii. The types of livestock kept by the local farmers and their management.
- iii. Detailed study of the physiology, breeding, housing, feeding, management, and diseases of the following farm animals: Poultry, sheep, Goat, Rabbits, Ducks.

5. Horticulture

- i. The meaning of Garden and why Gardens are made.
Types of Gardens.
- ii. Garden tools: selection, care, and uses.
- iii. Siting and planning a vegetable garden.
- iv. Clearing, burning, and stumping. Laying out of vegetable gardens and the factors which determine the size of the garden.
- v. Cultivation: tilling, making of beds, manuring (Compost, FYM night soil compost), and mulching. Reasons for the various operations, e.g., Double-Digging or Bastard Trenching.
- vi. Nursery work and transplanting of vegetable gardening.
- vii. Management of vegetable gardens: watering, mulching, weeding, after care, seed collection, and preservation.
- viii. Types of vegetables: exotic and indigenous. Vegetable groupings.
- ix. Vegetable propagation: raising seedling stocks in the nursery, budding, cuttings, grafting, layering. This should be supported by Practical Work.
- x. Flower Gardening: Laying out flower beds, development of school compound.
- xi. Pests and disease of vegetables, and how to control them.

1. General Agriculture

- i. Short history of Agriculture.
- ii. The world food population problem: the work of United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO).
- iii. The importance of Agriculture in a developing nation.
The importance of Agricultural Education.
- iv. Agriculture and the national income.
- v. Systems of Agriculture: Extensive and Intensive agriculture; Capitalist or peasant (subsistence agriculture).
- vi. Cropping Systems: e.g., Mono-cropping, Mixed Cropping.
- vii. Factors which affect the pattern of Agriculture of a country: For example, climate and vegetation.
- viii. Manures: Types of manures and their chemical composition, compost, FYM, Fertilizers.
- ix. Weeds, common weeds, their dispersal and their control.
- x. Pests and diseases and their control.
- xi. Farm Schools and Farm Settlements.

2. Soil Science

(a) Physical Properties of the Soil.

- i. Soil Texture: Mechanical analysis, sand, silt, clay; their properties and their functions. Soil classification based on texture, simple methods of determining soil texture.
- ii. Soil Structure: Importance, factors influencing-- climate, clay, humus, plant roots, micro-organisms. Effect of tillage. Soil conditioning.
- iii. Soil Air: Functions, Factors influencing; Soil ventilation. Experiments to show the presence of air in the soil; experiments to determine the volume of air in a given volume of soil.
- iv. Soil Water: Hydrological cycle. Field capacity; wilting point. Conservation of soil water. Determination of the moisture content of the soil. Experiment to show presence of water in a soil sample.

v. Soil Temperature: Effect on germination, growth of crops, soil organisms. Factors influencing soil temperature. Measurement of soil temperature.

(b) Chemical Properties of the Soils:

Plant nutrients and their sources--major and minor elements.

Availability of plant food materials.

Acidity, alkalinity and salinity including causes, effect, pH; prevention and correction.

(c) Biological Properties of the Soil:

i. Types of soil organisms and influence on soil fertility.

ii. Decomposition of organic matter--humus formation.

iii. Ammonification, nitrification, denitrification, and nitrogen fixation. Nitrogen cycle.

Maintenance of Soil Fertility

Manures and fertilizers; Classification. Residual effects. Compost, green manures, FYM. Lining. Tillage as a method of soil improvement. Drainage: symptoms, principles and practice.

Irrigation: Conditions for, types of soils, sources of water.

Soil Conservation: Importance--agencies and causes of erosion--prevention and control.

Soil Management: Underlying principles of correct land use. Selection of crops and rotations. Stocking and grazing.

Soil Survey: Methods of carrying out. Importance in Agricultural planning.

3. Animal Husbandry

i. Various methods of keeping livestock and types of livestock kept.

ii. Factors affecting the distribution of the various types of livestock.

iii. The place of livestock in the local economy including its importance in dietary.

- iv. History of Domesticated Animals.
- v. General principles in livestock management. Housing Feeding; Diseases and their control, etc.
- vi. Detail study of pigs and cattle.
- vii. Animal Physiology and Nutrition.
- viii. Brief discussion on breeding and improvement of farm animals.

4. Crop Husbandry

i. Brief survey and classification of the major world crops; the centres of origin; their distribution, cultivation, and utilization. Survey of main types grown in the country and how their distribution are affected by climate and soil types.

Study of the Botany and Agronomy of the following permanent crops: Oil Palm; Citrus; Kola; Cocoa; Rubber; Coconuts; Coffee; and Plaintains and Bananas and Pineapples.

- ii. Plant Breeding: Brief methods used by plant breeders in improving crop plants with some practical examples. Importance of plant breeding and the value of plant introduction.
- iii. Plant Health and Protection: Plant diseases and their causes: Virus; Bacteria; Fungi; Worms; insects. General methods of control of plant diseases. Control of insect pests by insecticides; Biological methods; cultural and mechanical control.
- iv. General Principles underlying crop rotation.

5. Agricultural Economics

Farm Records: Farm Accounts; Farm Arithmetic; Farm Organization. Price, supply and demand; Land; Labour and Capital; Marketing of Produce; Co-operative Societies; Functions of Marketing Boards; Importance of Transport and Communication; External Trade and National Income Currency.

Farm Management: Each student is allocated 0.2 acre of farm land. This may be under three-course or four-course rotation. The students carry out all the practical activities by themselves, growing all the crops in the locality. Here students have the real practice in running farms, making observations and keeping records.

Vegetable Gardening: Each student is also provided with 0.02 acre of garden area where he grows all types of vegetables for his use and learn their management.

Second year practical work includes experiments and projects. An attempt will be made on experiments bordering on the improvement of crops, methods of cultivation, and manurial treatments.

A P P E N D I X C

List of Courses offered and the
text books used at the Advanced
Teacher Training College, Owerri.

A P P E N D I X C

ADVANCED TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGE SYLLABUS

Agricultural Science

Agriculture is a double major. The instructional aims to provide training in the theory and practice of agriculture and to develop necessary skill to operate a school farm for intensive observation and demonstration of the processes of farming. Students are required to raise crops in individual plots and, also, to participate in different farm operations on the College Farm as their practical work in crop production. Excursions to agricultural farms and research stations are organized to familiarize them with modern farming techniques and latest research findings.

First Year: Course 1. Biology

<u>Textbooks:</u>	Chapman & Baker	<u>Zoology</u>	Longman
	Vines & Rees	<u>Plant and animal biology</u>	Longman

Course 2. Chemistry

<u>Textbook</u>	<u>Physical chemistry</u>	Harrap
Heys		

Course 3. Soil Science

<u>Textbook</u>		
Buckman & Brandy	<u>The Nature and properties of soils</u>	(7th ed.)

Course 4. Introductory Agriculture

<u>Textbook</u>	
Oyenuga	<u>Agriculture in Nigeria</u>

Second Year Course 1. Plant Protection

<u>Textbook</u>	
Pinhey	<u>Introduction to insect study in West Africa</u> Oxford

Course 2. Horticulture

Textbooks

Gibberd & Gibberd	<u>A gardening notebook for the tropics</u>	Longman
Greensill	<u>Gardening in the tropics</u>	Evans
Saunders	<u>A handbook of West African Flowers</u>	Oxford
Tindall	<u>Fruits and vegetables in West Africa</u>	F A O

Course 3. Principles of Agronomy

Course 4. Soil Management

Textbook

Ahn	<u>West African soil</u>	Oxford
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Course 5. Agricultural Chemistry

Textbooks

Knowles & Watkin	<u>A practical course in agricultural chemistry</u>	Macmillan
Wilcox & Townsend	<u>An introduction to agricultural chemistry</u>	Arnold

Course 6. Teaching Methods

Third Year

Course 1. Crop Production

Textbooks

Irvine	<u>West African crops</u>	Oxford
Philips	<u>An agricultural notebook</u>	Longman
Uguru	<u>A guide to practical agricultural science</u>	Macmillan

Course 2. Animal Husbandry

Course 3. Agricultural Engineering

Textbook

McColly & Martin	<u>Introduction to agricultural engineering</u>	McGraw-Hill
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Course 4. Agricultural Economics

Course 5. Agricultural Extension

Course 6. Special Methods

B I O L O G Y

Course 1. Modern Cell Biology

Textbook

Swanson	<u>The cell</u> (Foundations of modern biology series)	Prentice-Hall
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Course 2. Diversity of Organisms

Textbook

Vines & Rees	<u>Plant and animal biology, Vol. 1.</u>	Pitman
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Course 3. The Soil

Textbook

Vines & Rees	<u>Plant and animal biology, Vol. 2.</u>	Pitman
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Course 4. Ecology

Textbook

Lowson	<u>Intermediate Botany</u>	U T P
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Second Year

Course 1. Diversity of Organisms (2)

Course 2. Morphology and Anatomy of
Angiosperms

Course 4. Physiology of Angiosperms

Course 5. Comparative Morphology,
Anatomy, and Physiology of Vertebrates

Textbooks

Grove & Newell	<u>Animal Biology</u>	U T P
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Rowett	<u>Guides to dissection</u>	
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Course 6. Heredity and EvolutionCourse 7. Biology MethodTextbook

Green

The teaching of biology in tropical
secondary schools

Oxford

Third YearCourse 1. Comparative morphology, Anatomy
& Physiology of VertebratesCourse 2. Physiology of Angiosperms (2)Course 3. Taxonomy of AngiospermsCourse 4. Biology Method

C H E M I S T R Y

First YearCourse 1. General ChemistryCourse 2. Organic ChemistryCourse 3. MathematicsTextbooks

Durrant	<u>General and inorganic chemistry</u>	Longman
Partington & Stratton	<u>Chemical calculations</u>	Macmillan
Sinko & Plane	<u>Chemistry</u>	McGraw-Hill
Heys	<u>Physical chemistry</u>	Harrap

Second YearCourse 1. Inorganic ChemistryCourse 2. Physical ChemistryCourse 3. Organic ChemistryCourse 4. Chemistry MethodsTextbooks

Wilson & Newell	<u>General and inorganic chemistry</u>	Cambridge
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Textbooks

Grunden & Hembest	<u>Organic chemistry; an introduction</u>	Macdonald
Mee	<u>Physical chemistry</u>	Heinemann
Finar	<u>Organic chemistry: Vol. 1.</u>	Longman
Dawson	<u>Practical inorganic chemistry</u>	Methuen

Third YearCourse 1. Inorganic ChemistryCourse 2. Physical ChemistryCourse 3. Organic ChemistryCourse 4. Problems

E D U C A T I O N

First Year

Course 1. Educational thinking, Past
and Present

Textbook

Atkinson & Maleska	<u>The history of education</u>	Chilton
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Course 2. School and SocietyCourse 3. Growth, Development and EducationTextbooks

Stones	<u>An introduction to educational psychology</u>	Methuen
Beard	<u>An Outline of Piaget's developmental psychology</u>	Routledge & Kegan Paul

Second Year

Course 1. Teaching materials, Methods,
Evaluation and Research

Textbook

Wheeler	<u>Curriculum process</u>	London U P
	<u>Course 2. Student Teaching</u>	

Third YearCourse 1. School Organization and Adminis-
trationCourse 2. Remedial TeachingCourse 3. Advanced Study

E N G L I S H

The department offers two courses:

- (a) A three-year course in English Language and Literature for students taking English as one of their major optional subjects.
- (b) A one-year course in General English for those students majoring in other subjects.

The object of the General English Course is to give the students a good working knowledge of the language, to establish a pronunciation that is internationally intelligible, and to provide practice in using specialized vocabularies, and in reading textbooks and non-textbooks quickly and with understanding.

English Language and LiteratureFirst YearCourse 1. English Language (1)Textbooks

Allen	<u>Living English structure</u>	Longman
Boadi et al	<u>Grammatical structure & its teaching</u>	A U P

Course 2. Phonetics (1)Textbooks

Allen	<u>Living English speech</u>	Longman
Christophersen	<u>An English phonetics course</u>	Longman
Hill	<u>Drills and tests in English sounds</u>	Longman
O'Connor	<u>Better English pronunciation</u>	Cambridge

Course 3. Literature (1)

Drama

Shakespeare	<u>Julius Caesar, A midsummer night's dream</u> <u>Henry IV parts I & II, Richard II & Macbeth</u>
Marlowe	<u>Dr. Faustus, Tamburlaine</u>
Jonson	<u>Volpone & Everyman in his humour</u>
Kyd	<u>The Spanish tragedy</u>
Webster	<u>The Duchess of Malfi</u>
Dekker	<u>The shoemaker's holiday</u>

Prose

Achebe	<u>Things fall apart & Arrow of God</u>
Hardy	<u>The mayor of Casterbridge</u>
Ngugi	<u>The river between</u>

PoetrySecond YearCourse 1. English Language (2)Course 2. Phonetics (2)Course 3. Literature (2)Drama

Shakespeare	<u>Hamlet, King Lear, Twelfth night, The winter's tale</u> <u>Henry V, & Anthony and Cleopatra.</u>
Congreve	<u>The way of the world</u>
Sheridan	<u>The rivals & The school for scandal</u>
Eliot	<u>Murder in the cathedral & Family reunion</u>
Shaw	<u>Arms and the man & Androcles and the lion</u>
Henshaw	<u>Medicine for love & Children of the goddess</u>
Clark	<u>Three plays & Song of a goat</u>

Prose

Austen	<u>Persuasion & Pride and Prejudice</u>
Bronte	<u>Jane Eyre</u>
Bronte	<u>Wuthering heights</u>
Eliot	<u>The mill on the floss</u>
Dickens	<u>Great expectations & David Copperfield</u>
Conrad	<u>The heart of darkness</u>

Prose

Achebe	<u>No longer at ease & Man of the world</u>
Ekwensi	<u>People of the city</u>
Munonye	<u>The only son & Obi</u>
Ike	<u>Toads for supper</u>
Nzekwu	<u>Wand of the noble wood</u>

Poetry

Selections from:

- (a) The metaphysical poets and Elizabethan Lyric poets:
 Donne, Marvell, Herbert, Vaughan, Cranshaw,
 Shafespeare, Sidney, DRayton, Raleigh, Spenser.
- (b) Milton. (c) Pope and Dryden.

Course 4. Methodology (1)Textbooks

Billows	<u>The techniques of language teaching</u>	Longman
Bright & McGregor	<u>Teaching English as a second language</u>	Longman
Tiffen	<u>A Language in common</u>	Longman

Third YearCourse 1. English Language (3)Course 2. Phonetics (3)Course 3. Literature (3)Drama

Shakespeare	<u>Othello, As you like it, Much ado about nothing, and Richard III</u>
Bridie	<u>Tobias and the angel</u>
Soyinka	<u>The lion and the jewel, The trials of Brother Jero</u>
Shaw	<u>St. Joan and Major Barbara</u>

Prose

Greene	<u>The heart of the matter, The power and the glory</u>
Hemingway	<u>The old man and the sea, For whom the bell tolls</u>
Forster	<u>A passage to India, Where angels fear to tread</u>
Lawrence	<u>Sons and lovers</u>

Prose

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Orwell	<u>Animal farm</u>
Abraham	<u>Tell freedom</u>
Mphahlele	<u>Down second avenue</u>
Nwapa	<u>Efuru</u>
Amadi	<u>The concubine</u>
Nwankwo	<u>Danda</u>
Soyinka	<u>The Interpreters</u>

PoetryCourse 4. Methodology (2)General EnglishFirst Year

- (a) Speech
 (b) Reading comprehension and writing

Textbooks

Allen	<u>Living English speech</u>	Longman
Allen	<u>Living English structure</u>	Longman
Hill	<u>Drills and tests in English sounds</u>	Longman
Barnard	<u>Better spoken English</u>	Macmillan

FrenchFirst YearTextbooks

Credif	<u>Livre de l'eleve VIF 1</u>	Didier
Credif	<u>Cabier de l'eleve</u>	Didier
Gougenheim	<u>Dictionnaire fondamental de la Langue Francaise</u>	Didier

Second YearTextbooks

Grevisse	<u>Petit Larousse illustre</u>	Larousse
Grevisse	<u>Precis de grammaire Francaise</u>	Hatier-Duculot
Ministere de l'education nationale	<u>Francais Fondamental 1</u>	I P N
Ministere de l'education nationale	<u>Francais Fondamental 2</u>	I P N

Third Year

Consult head of department

G E O G R A P H Y

Firt YearCourse 1. GeomorphologyCourse 2. Climatology and BiogeographyCourse 3. Practical GeographyTextbooks

Robinson	<u>Morphology and landscape</u>	U T P
Gates	<u>Meterology and climatology</u>	Harrap
Riley & Young	<u>World vegetation</u>	Cambridge
Bridges	<u>World soils</u>	Cambridge
Birch	<u>Maps</u>	Oxford

Second YearCourse 1. World Human GeographyCourse 2. World Economic GeographyCourse 3. Practical GeographyCourse 4. Geography MethodsTextbooks

Perpillou	<u>Human geography</u>	Longman
White, Griffin & McKnight	<u>World economic geography</u>	Methuen
Theakstone & Harrison	<u>The analysis of geographical data</u>	Heinemann
Long & Roberson	<u>Teaching geography</u>	Heinemann
Majasan ed.	<u>New dimensions in Nigerian high school geography</u>	Ibadan

Third YearCourse 1. NigeriaCourse 2. AfricaCourse 3. Special RegionCourse 4. Practical Geography (3)Textbooks

Udo	<u>Geographical regions of Nigeria</u>	Heinemann
Jarret	<u>Africa</u>	MacDonald & Evans
Pritchard	<u>Africa</u>	Longman
Parker	<u>Anglo-America</u>	
Adams & Rogers	<u>Atlas of North American affairs</u>	Heinemann

H I S T O R Y

First YearCourse 1. HistoriographyTextbook

Collingwood

The idea of history

Oxford

Course 2. Prehistory, Ancient History
and the Middle AgesTextbooksPetrovich
& CurtinThe human achievement

Silver Burdett

Hitti

The Near East in history

Van Nostrand

Bury

A history of Greece

Macmillan

Cary

A history of Rome

Macmillan

Kees

Ancient Egypt

Faber

Course 3. History of WestAfrica: 1000 AD toTextbooksPresent Day

Trimingham

A history of Islam in West Africa

Oxford

Fage

A history of West Africa

Cambridge

Dike

Trade and politics in the Niger
Delta

Clarendon

Crowder

The story of Nigeria

Faber

Webster et alWest Africa since 1800

Longman

Ward

Government in West Africa

Allen & Unwin

McPhee

The economic revolution in Africa

Routledge

Second YearCourse 1. Other Parts of
Africa: 1000 AD - 1800TextbooksOmer Cooper et al. The making of modern Africa Vol. 1. Longman

McEwan

Africa from early times to 1800

Oxford

Marquard

The story of South Africa

Faber

Ingham

History of East Africa

Longman

Course 2. Early Modern World

Textbooks

Green	<u>Renaissance and reformation</u>	Edward Arnold
Parry	<u>Europe and the wider world</u>	Oxford
Hussey	<u>Discovery, expansion, and empires</u>	Cambridge
Anderson	<u>Europe in the eighteenth century</u>	Longman

Course 3. Methods of Teaching HistoryTextbooks

Crookall	<u>Handbook for history teachers in West Africa</u>	Evans
Burston & Green	<u>Handbook for history teachers</u>	Methuen
Carr	<u>What is history</u>	Methuen

Third YearCourse 1. History of Africa
Since 1800

Oxford

Textbooks

Anene & Brown (ed.)	<u>Africa in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries</u>	Oxford
McEwan (ed.)	<u>Twentieth century Africa</u>	Oxford
Marquard	<u>The story of South Africa</u>	Faber
Ingham	<u>A history of East Africa</u>	Longman
Comer Cooper, et al	<u>The making of modern Africa Vol. 2</u>	Longman

Course 2. The Later Modern WorldTextbooks

Petrovich & Curtin	<u>The human achievement</u>	Silver Burdett Co.
Strong	<u>The story of the twentieth century</u>	London U.P
Somervell	<u>Modern Europe (1870-1950)</u>	Methuen
Browne	<u>World history 2, 1900-1968</u>	Cambridge

H O M E E C O N O M I C S

The courses offered by the Department of Home Economics are related to the culture, the needs and aspirations of the people. They aim to influence the improvement and modernization of rural life through better health, sanitation, food, family,

and home arrangement. Students are prepared to cover the broad field of home economics so that they can teach competently in secondary schools or training colleges, contribute to the development of the community in which they live and work, and integrate the field of home economics with the cultural life of the community. Home economics ranks as a double major. About half of the time available is devoted to theory and half to practical work.

First Year

- Course 1. Applied Science (1)
- Course 2. Art and Design
- Course 3. Gardening
- Course 4. Foods and Nutrition
- Course 5. Clothing and Textiles
- Course 6. Laundrywork
- Course 7. Special Method

Textbooks

Bull	<u>Basic needlework</u>	Longman
Nenney & Ryett	<u>Modern home laundrywork</u>	Dent
Cox	<u>Practical laundrywork</u>	Griffin
Ogunbyi	<u>Home management II: laundrywork</u>	Heinmann
Williams	<u>Miss Williams' cookery book</u>	Longman
Johnston	<u>About your cookery</u>	Longman
Ricketts	<u>Food, health and you</u>	Macmillan
Nuffield Foundation	<u>Food science--a special study</u>	Penguin

Second Year

- Course 1. Applied Science
- Course 2. Health
- Course 3. Foods and Nutrition (2)
- Course 4. Clothing and Textiles (2)
- Course 5. Home Management (1)
- Course 6. Maternal and Child Care
and Development
- Course 7. The Family
- Course 8. Special Method

Textbooks

King	<u>Better home management</u>	Mills & Boon
King	<u>Better cookery</u>	Mills & Boon

Textbooks

Edge	<u>Child care and management</u>	
Johnson	<u>A handbook for teachers of home economics</u>	Macmillan

Third Year

- Course 1. Home Management (2)
- Course 2. Housing
- Course 3. Community Service
- Course 4. Special Study
- Course 5. Special Method

M A T H E M A T I C S

First Year

- Course 1. Pure Mathematics (1)
- Course 2. Applied Mathematics (1)
- Course 3. Statistics (1)
- Course 4. Teaching Methods

Textbooks

	<u>School mathematics project advanced mathematics: Book 1. (metric)</u>	Cambridge
Lipschutz	<u>Theory and problems of set theory and related topics</u>	Schaum
Loveday	<u>Statistics, a first course (metric)</u>	Cambridge
Ayres	<u>Theory and problems of differential and integral calculus</u>	Schaum
Durell	<u>Elementary co-ordinate geometry</u>	
Bell	<u>Advanced level vectors</u>	Heinemann
Humphrey	<u>Intermediate mechanics (statics and hydrostatics)</u>	Longman
Humphrey	<u>Intermediate mechanics (dynamics)</u>	Longman
Green	<u>Advanced level applied mathematics</u>	U T P

Second Year

- Course 1. Pure Mathematics (2)
- Course 2. Applied Mathematics (2)
- Course 3. Statistics (2)
- Course 4. History and Development of Mathematics

Textbooks

Bristol	<u>Introduction to linear programming</u>	Heath
Loveday	<u>Statistics, a second course (metric)</u>	Cambridge
Praggio	<u>Elementary treatise on differential equations</u>	Bell
Selby & Sweet	<u>Sets, relations and functions: an introduction</u>	McGraw-Hill
Hodson	<u>Advanced pure mathematics</u>	Macmillan
Gow	<u>A course in pure mathematics</u>	Cambridge
Green	<u>Dynamics</u>	U T P
Smith	<u>History of mathematics Vol. 1 & 2</u>	Ginn

Third Year

- Course 1. Pure Mathematics (3)
Course 2. Applied Mathematics (3)
Course 3. Statistics (3)
Course 4. History and Development
of Mathematics

Textbooks

Green	<u>Algebraic solid geometry</u>	Cambridge
Armit	<u>Advanced level vectors</u>	Heinemann
Durell	<u>Advanced algebra Parts 2 and 3</u>	
Loney	<u>Hydrostatics</u>	Cambridge
Spiegel	<u>Theory and problems of statistics</u>	Schaum
Striuk	<u>A short history of mathematics</u>	Bell

PHYSICAL AND HEALTH EDUCATION

First YearCourse 1. AnatomyTextbooks

Perrof	<u>Anatomy for students and teachers of physical education</u>	E A P
Ross & Wilson	<u>Foundations of anatomy and physiology</u>	Livingstone

Course 2. PhysiologyCourse 3. KinesiologyTextbook

Thompson	<u>Manual of kinesiology</u>	Mosby
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Course 4. Physiology of Exercise
and Training

Textbook

Karpovich Physiology of muscular activity W N S

Course 5. History, Principles, and
Philosophies of Physical Education

Textbooks

Randall
& Waire Objectives of physical education lesson Bell
Williams The principles of physical education Saunders

Course 6. Instructional
Activities and Practical
Studies

Textbook

Know-the-Game series Educational Production.

Second Year

Course 1. History, principles, and
Philosophies of Physical Education

Textbook

Dalen et al A world history of physical education Prentice-Hall

Course 2. Organization and
Administration of Health and
Physical Education (1)

Textbooks

Bucher Administration of school and college health
physical education programmes Mosby
Voltimer
& Esslinger The organization and administration of
physical education A C C

Course 3. Health Education

Textbook

Turner et al School health and health education Mosby

Course 4. First Aid and Safety
Procedures

Textbook

British Red Cross Society First Aid

Course 5. Adapted Physical Education
and Remedial Work

Textbook

Daniels Adapted physical education Harper

Course 6. Curriculum Development
and Programmes in Health and
Physical Education

Textbooks

Irwin The curriculum in health and physical
education Brown

Vanier
& Fait Teaching physical education in
Secondary schools Saunders

Course 7. Biological Sciences and
Physical Education

Textbooks

Arnold Education, physical education and
personality development Heinemann

Hadfield Childhood and adolescence Penguin

Course 8. Special Method in
Physical Education

Course 9. Instructional Activities
and Practical Studies

Third Year

Course 1. Organization and Administra-
tion of Health and Physical
Education (2)

Textbook

A.A.A. Official handbook

Course 2. Health Education (2)

Course 3. Tests and Measurement in
Health and Physical Education

Textbook

Campbell
& Tucker An introduction to measurement in physical
education Bell

Course 4. Movement Study and Dance
Technique

Course 5. Curriculum Development and
Programmes in Health and Physical
Education. (2)

Course 6. Seminars in Health and
Physical Education

Course 7. Special Method in Health
Education (2)

Textbook

Pirrie &
Dalrell-Ward

A Textbook of health education

Tavistock

Course 8. Instructional Activities
and Practical Studies

Course 9. Individual Assignment

P H Y S I C S

First Year

Course 1. Mechanics and Mechanical
Properties of Matter

Course 2. Heat and Thermodynamics (1)

Course 3. Geometric Optics

Textbook

Richards
et al

Course 4. Electricity and Magnetism (1)

Modern University Physics (complete ed.) Addison
Wesley

Second Year

Course 1. Mechanical Properties of
Matter (2)

Course 2. Heat and Thermodynamics (2)

Course 3. Physical Optics (1)

Course 4. Electricity and Magnetism (2)

Third Year

Course 1. Heat and Thermodynamics (3)

Course 2. Physical Optics (2)

Course 3. Acoustics and Ultrasonics

Course 4. Electricity and Magnetism (3)

Course 5. Modern Physics (Special Topics)

A P P E N D I X D

Sample Examination Questions

1. Grade II Mathematics (Normal Level)
2. Grade II Geography (Special Level)
3. N.C.E. Methods of Teaching

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
EAST CENTRAL STATE OF NIGERIA

Teachers' Grade II Certificate Examination, 1971

MATHEMATICS (NORMAL LEVEL)

Time allowed: 3 hours

Answer any EIGHT questions. Tables may be obtained from the Invigilators

1. (i) Simplify: $\frac{x+3}{x^2+3x+2} - \frac{x-5}{x^2+x-2}$
Check your answer by taking $x = 3$
(ii) The diameter of a cycle wheel is d inches.
Find, in its simplest form, an expression for the speed of the cycle in feet per second when the wheels are making n complete revolutions per minute.
 $\left(\text{Take } \pi \text{ to be } 3\frac{1}{7} \right)$
2. (i) Draw a figure to illustrate the algebraic identity
 $a^2 - b^2 = (a+b)(a-b)$, showing clearly how your figure illustrates this identity.
(ii) Factorise $a^2 + a - 30$. By using your result, or otherwise, find the four factors of
 $(6x^2 - 13x)^2 + (6x^2 - 13x) - 30$
(iii) Factorise $4x^2 - y^2 + 2x - y$.
3. (a) In a simple harmonic motion of period T , it is given that
$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{h^2 + k^2}{gh}} \quad \text{where } k \text{ is positive.}$$
Change the subject of the formula so as to express h in terms of T, g, k and π
(b) Prove:
(i) $(\log_a b) \cdot (\log_b c) \cdot (\log_c a) = 1$
(ii) $\frac{\log_{10} \sqrt{27} + \log_{10} \sqrt{8} - \log_{10} \sqrt{125}}{\log_{10} 6 - \log_{10} 5} = \frac{3}{2}$

4. The annexed table gives a set of corresponding values of x and y for which

$$y = \frac{2x^2 - 3}{x + 8} \text{ for values of } x \text{ from } -3 \text{ to } +3.$$

x	-3	-2.5	-2	-1.5	-1	-0.5	0	0.5	1	1.5	2	2.5	3
y	3	1.73	0.83	0.23	-0.15	-0.33	-0.37	-0.29	-0.11	0.15	0.5	0.9	1.36

(i) Draw the graph of $y = \frac{2x^2 - 3}{x + 8}$

for values of x from -3 to $+3$, taking 1 inch as the unit for both x and y .

- (ii) Explain how to obtain from the graph the values of the roots of the equation $2x^2 - x - 11 = 0$, and read off these values as accurately as you can.

5. (a) If chords AB , CD of a circle, centre O , radius r , intersect at a point x outside the circle, and if XT is the tangent from X to the circle, prove that $XA \cdot XB = XC \cdot XD = XT^2$.

- (b) The line BC is the diameter of a semicircle and A is a point on the arc of the semicircle. The line through A perpendicular to BC at N ; the tangent to the semicircle which is parallel to BC meets the line NA produced at X . Prove that

(i) $AN = \frac{AB \cdot AC}{BC}$

(ii) $XA = \frac{(AB - AC)^2}{2BC}$

6. A , B , C , D are four points in order at equal distances apart on a straight line, and DX is a line through D perpendicular to AD .

If $AB = BC = CD = x$ and $DX = y$,

- (i) express AX^2 , CX^2 , BX^2 each in terms of x and y ;

- (ii) prove that $AX^2 = CX^2 + 2AC^2$

- (iii) prove that $CX^2 + AC^2 = BX^2 + AB^2$

7. The sides AB , DC of the trapezium $ABCD$ are parallel, and the diagonals AC , BD cut at X . If $AB = 2\text{cm.}$ and $DC = 5\text{cm.}$, calculate

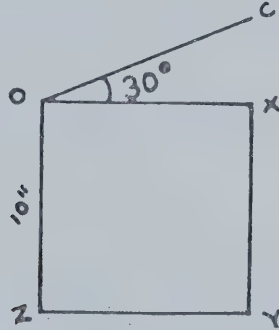
(i) $\frac{\text{area } AXB}{\text{area } DXC}$

(ii) $\frac{\text{area } AXB}{\text{area } AXD}$

(iii) $\frac{\text{area } AXB}{\text{area } ABCD}$

8. Draw a triangle ABC in which $BC = CA = 3.6$ inches., and $AB = 1.7$ inches. Without using a set square or protractor, construct a triangle XBC equal in area to the triangle ABC , in which $XB = XC$. If M is the mid point of BC , measure the lengths of MA and MX . Construct also a triangle YBC equal in area to the triangle ABC , in which the angle BYC is a right angle. Measure BY and CY .

9. The diagram below represents a side view of a cubical box with the lid partly open. The length of an edge OZ of the box and of the lid OC is 10 inches and the lid is raised through an angle of 30° . Calculate the distance of C from X , giving your answer to three significant figures.



If the lid is further raised such that C is vertically above the mid point of the edge OX , calculate

- (i) the angle COX
- (ii) the distance of C from Y .

10. (a) If $\sec 2\theta = 5$, find the possible values of $\tan\theta$, $\cos\theta$, $\sin\theta$

(b) (i) prove the identity

$$\frac{\sin 3A + \sin A}{\cos 3A + \cos A} = \tan 2A$$

(ii) If $A + B + C = 180^\circ$, prove that

$$\begin{aligned} \sin 2A + \sin B - \sin 2C \\ = 4\cos A \cos B \sin C. \end{aligned}$$

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

EAST CENTRAL STATE OF NIGERIA

Teachers' Grade II Certificate Examination, 1971

GEOGRAPHY (SPECIAL LEVEL)

Time allowed: 3.00 hours

Candidates should answer SIX questions only. Three from Section A, and Three from Either Section B or Section C. If Section C is offered the three questions must be selected from only one subsection. Sketch maps and diagrams should be used where necessary.

SECTION A

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY

1. (a) What are the characteristics of Sedimentary Rocks?
(b) Classify Sedimentary Rocks according to their mode of formation
(c) Draw a map of Nigeria, shade and name areas where you would expect to find Sedimentary Rocks.
2. (a) Describe with the aid of diagrams, the formation and types of River Deltas
(b) Using specific examples, show how man has made use of Deltas.
3. (a) Describe the relief of the Oceans
(b) In what ways is the relief of Oceans similar to that of the land surface.
4. (a) Name and describe the Instruments which you would use to measure the following
 - (i) Wind velocity
 - (ii) Atmospheric pressure
 - (iii) relative humidity
 - (iv) Sunshine.
(b) Describe what records you would expect to be kept in a Meteorological station and say the uses of each record.

5. (a) What are Planetary Winds
 (b) Describe the Planetary Winds that blow over *EITHER* the Continent of Africa *OR* South America in January and July
 (c) Show how these winds are related to the Rainfall distribution for the continent you have chosen.

6. Station A	J.	F.	M.	Ap.	May	Ju.	Jy.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Temp. °F	81	81	81	81	81	81	82	83	83	84	83	82
Rainfall: Ins.	9.8	9.1	10.3	8.7	6.7	3.3	2.3	1.5	1.8	4.2	5.6	8.0
Station B												
Temp. °F	-3	1	14	30	49	59	66	60	48	32	11	1
Rainfall: Ins.	1	2	.75	.75	1.5	2.75	3	2.3	1.5	2.5	1.5	2

The above show Temperature (°F) and rainfall (in inches) for Two Stations in the World.

- (i) Draw temperature and rainfall graphs for *EITHER* Station A *OR* station B.
 (ii) What is the Mean Temperature for each station?
 (iii) What is the annual range of temperature for each station?
 (iv) Describe briefly the characteristic climate of each station as indicated in the statistics
 (v) Suggest the Natural vegetation for each station
 (vi) Compare possible Man's exploitation of the products of the two vegetation types.

SECTION B

7. Write an Essay on *EITHER* Sheep Rearing in Australia *OR* Rearing in Argentina.
8. Select one crop from each of the following groups:
 (i) Fibres: Silk, Cotton, Wool
 (ii) Cereals: Maize, rice, wheat
 (iii) Beverages: tea, coffee, wine
 For each crop which you have selected
 (a) Describe the geographical factors that favour its large scale production
 (b) State briefly its uses
 (c) Discuss world trade on the crop.
9. With particular reference to Nigeria, write an account of Mineral Oil Production under the following headings:
 (a) Mode of Occurrence
 (b) Location of oil fields
 (c) Method of Production
 (d) Uses of the oil and its by-products
 (e) Significance of oil in the country's economy.
10. With particular reference to *EITHER* the steppes *OR* the Prairies explain what is meant by 'Extensive Farming'.

11. Select any *FOUR* Industries from *FOUR* different States in Nigeria, and discuss the factors which you consider have played an important part in locating such industries.
12. The density of population in North West Europe is 201 per sq. mile, and in the Amazon Basin below 10 per sq. mile. Discuss the factors which you consider have contributed to the population differences between the two areas.

SECTION C

REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY

SUB-SECTION I

THE BRITISH ISLES AND WESTERN EUROPE

13. (a) With the aid of a sketch map divide *EITHER* Norway *OR* Sweden into natural regions.
- (b) Briefly describe the Regions, and give an account of the economic importance of each of the Regions.
14. Give an account of *EITHER* the Fishing Industry of the North Sea, *OR* Ship-building Industry in the British Isles.
15. With the aid of separate sketch maps show the positions and account for the importance of *THREE* of the following cities: Bordeaux, Amsterdam, Copenhagen, Koblenz, Antwerp.
16. Compare and Contrast the Farming and Industrial Activities of the Aquitaine and the Rhone — Saone Valley of France.
17. (i) Account for the location
- (ii) Describe the Sources of raw materials
- (iii) Describe the trade in the finished products of any *TWO* of the following Industries in Western Germany:
- (a) Textile Industry
- (b) Heavy Iron and Steel Industry
- (c) Chemical Industry.
18. With the aid of sketch maps show the relationship between the Natural Regions of Belgium and the country's distribution of population.

SUB-SECTION II

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

19. Using the headings
 - (a) Relief and drainage
 - (b) Climate
 - (c) Natural resources;
 Write a description of *EITHER* the High Plains *OR* the 'Mediterranean' Region of the U.S.A.
20. (i) In which parts of the U.S.A. is Corn grown on a large scale?
 (ii) What conditions render the areas particularly suitable for growing Corn?
 (iii) What are the uses of Corn in the U.S.A.?
21. Give an account of Industries associated with the Appalachian Coal fields.
22. With the aid of separate sketch maps show the position and account for the importance of *THREE* of the following cities: Los Angeles, St. Louis, Houston, Boston, Seattle.
23. *EITHER* give a detailed account of Railway Communication in the U.S.A. *OR* Discuss the Inland Waterways of the U.S.A.
24. On a large map of North America, locate and name
 - (i) Rocky Mts; the Sierra Nevada; Great Salt Lake; R. Sacramento
 - (ii) The boundary between U.S.A. and Mexico
 - (iii) Shade an area with annual rainfall of over 60 inches
 - (iv) Shade an area where winter temperatures might exceed 50°F
 - (v) The following cities: Duluth, Philadelphia, Salt Lake City
 - (vi) A Copper producing area; the Mesabi Iron-ore field
 - (vii) The Hudson — Mowark waterway; the Grand Coullée Dam.

SUB-SECTION III

ISLAMIC COUNTRIES

25. Account for the distribution of Population in North Africa.
26. Write an account of Mineral oil production in the Middle East.
27. *EITHER* Discuss the importance of River Nile in the economy of Egypt, *OR* Write an Essay on 'Irrigation in Egypt.'
28. Write a geographical account of *EITHER* Syria *OR* the Lebanon.
29. With the aid of separate sketch maps show the position and account for the importance of *THREE* of the following cities: Alexandria, Basra, Beirut, Tel Aviv, and Karachi.
30. Compare West Pakistan and East Pakistan under the following headings:
 - (i) Size and population
 - (ii) Relief and Drainage
 - (iii) Agriculture
 - (iv) Industries.

SUB-SECTION IV

BRITISH COMMONWEALTH AND EMPIRE

31. Assess the importance of Irrigation in India.
32. Write a geographical account of *EITHER* Jamaica *OR* Tasmania.
33. With particular reference to British Columbia, show the relationship between
 - (i) Relief and drainage
 - (ii) Mineral Resources
 - (iii) Distribution of Population.
34. With the aid of separate sketch maps show the position and account for the importance of *THREE* of the following cities: Hobart, Wellington, Kingston, Toronto, Melbourne.
35. What geographical factors are responsible for the differences in the economy and development of North Island and South Island of New Zealand?
36. Assess the relative importance of Agriculture (including Pastoral farming) and Mining in the economy of Australia.

A P P E N D I X E

ALVAN IKOKU COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, OWERRI

THE NIGERIA CERTIFICATE IN EDUCATION EXAMINATION 1973

EDUCATION PAPER II METHODS OF TEACHING

July 20, 1973

Time: 9:00 a.m. - 12:00

Commence each answer on a separate two-joined sheet of paper.
Answer questions as indicated in each Section.

All questions carry 25 marks.

SECTION I - GENERAL METHODS

Answer ONE question from this Section.

1. State in order the different hierarchies of the Taxonomy of educational objectives in the cognitive domain.

Write a brief account of what each member entails illustrating each answer with either an instructional objective or a question selected from any of your subject areas.

2. Children learn best by doing.
What principles should guide the teacher in the selection of classroom activities?
In an instructional setting, what are the basic characteristics of
 - (a) Introductory activities?
 - (b) Developmental activities?
 - (c) Concluding activities?
3. (a) What are the advantages of
 - i) Classroom discussions?
 - ii) Classroom demonstrations?(b) What principles should guide the teacher in the effective use of demonstrations?

SECTION II - CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Answer ONE question from this Section.

4. A three-year vocational course is being established for primary school leavers in your local community. You are asked to design a subject curriculum in one of your subject areas for the course.

Name the stages in which you will be involved in the first year. Describe briefly the type of activities in which you will be involved in each stage.

5. What are the characteristics of successful unit plans? Name the basic steps involved in unit planning. Briefly describe each of these steps.
6. Describe any two of the following:
 - (a) The basic principles of curriculum evaluation.
 - (b) The characteristics of the core curriculum.
 - (c) The different kinds of correlation used in a correlated curriculum.
 - (d) Both the principles type and the history type of integration when used in a broad field curriculum.

SECTION III - SPECIAL METHODS

Answer TWO questions from this Section, taking ONE from each of your major optional subjects, except in the case of Home Economics and Agricultural Science candidates who will answer TWO questions on their own subject.

BIOLOGY

7. Explain carefully how you would set up an aquarium in a classroom in a secondary school in a village which has no supply of tap water or electricity.

Choosing any two suitable concepts in biology, show how you would use this aquarium to teach these concepts to secondary three children.

8. Prepare a unit plan for a series of lessons on insects in secondary three. Show clearly
 - (a) What previous knowledge you would assume
 - (b) and FOUR principal concepts you plan to emphasis
 - (c) and what technique you would use to teach each of the four concepts.

CHEMISTRY

- (. Outline the steps and method you will employ in teaching qualitative analysis to class four students such that at the end students can formulate and use their own systematic scheme to identify the following

cations: Cu^{++} Pb^{++} Ca^{++} Fe^{++} Fe^{+++} Zn^{++}

10. Describe briefly how you will introduce carbon dioxide to Class three students.

Outline any two interesting experiments which students can easily carry out during their study of the preparation and properties of carbon dioxide.

ENGLISH

11. You have been posted to a secondary school in East-Central State where the course book (Practical English) is the only textbook currently used for teaching English. The Principal realizes that a complete reading programme is needed throughout the school to supplement the material provided in the course book, and has asked for your advice.

Draw up your proposals in detail--mentioning, if possible, actual titles of books and show how the reading programme would be linked with the existing language and literature classes.

OR

In a secondary school in East-Central State the Principal realizes that the course book is deficient in practice writing skills.

Draw up a detailed programme indicating the various types of writing practice to be used throughout the school, with suggestions as to how to teach these skills; bearing in mind the students' knowledge on entering secondary school, and the types and standard of writing required in the West African School Certificate examination.

12. EITHER

Write a clear description of how the four language learning skills should be taught. Indicate, giving your reasons, the order in which they should be taught.

OR

How should poetry be taught to pupils in the first three classes of the secondary school here? State clearly the type of poems you would use and how you would teach a poetry lesson. Cite a specific poem you would use which would be of advantage.

AGRICULTURAL SCIENCE

13. (a) In teaching farm mechanics subjects an Agricultural teacher finds job sheets very useful. What are the contents of a job sheet?
- (b) What factors are considered responsible for the failure in Class discipline in most farm mechanics lessons?
14. What are the differences between the laboratory method of teaching and the field method of teaching agriculture?
- What method would you recommend in teaching class four pupils how to test the acidity of different soil samples? Give reasons for your choice.
15. Write briefly on the duties of a teacher in connection with any demonstration lesson in agriculture.
- Write short notes on
- (i) the use of commercial representatives;
- (ii) demonstration on farms.
16. Very few home-study assignments are usually made. This makes it still more important that some time be given to a "supervised study" at school. When would you use supervised study method in your teaching? State other reasons why supervised study is recommended in teaching.

GEOGRAPHY

17. Draw up a detailed lesson plan on ONE of the following topics:
- (a) A first lesson on Contours for Class I pupils.
- (b) A field study of a local industry by Class II pupils.
- (c) The meaning and value of the International dateline for Class III pupils.

EITHER

18. Explain how you would use statistical methods in the teaching of two of the following:
- (a) The transportation system in an urban area.

- (b) The types of farming in a rural district.
- (c) The relative importance of the Ports of Nigeria.
- (d) The Mediterranean type of climate.

OR

- (a) What are the advantages and the limitations of the use of sample studies as a method of teaching regional geography?
- (b) Outline the steps of a lesson based on the sample study of a named region.

HISTORY

19. EITHER

"Students' activities are indispensable in success-history teaching." Justify this statement and describe three of the following forms of activity for secondary school history students:

- (a) Writing History
- (b) Note writing
- (c) Visits
- (d) Memorizing

OR

Write notes of a lesson you will use to teach a fourth form class in an Owerri Secondary School, one of the following topics:

- (a) Missionary activities in Nigeria before 1950.
- (b) Aba Women Riot.
- (c) The Arochuku Expedition.

20. Examine the place of questioning in history teaching in secondary schools.

HOME ECONOMICS

21. The choice of areas of study in a Home Economics programme and the emphasis given to teaching them in secondary schools must vary from country to country.

In your opinion, what should be the areas most emphasized in Nigeria. (15)

Give reasons for your choice and outline the objectives and content for one area you have selected

(10)

(25)

22. The Home Economics programme in a secondary school should be closely related to the socio-economic background of the pupils if it is to be effective. Select two topics you (5) would consider suitable for a secondary school course and outline the objectives and contents as you would adapt it for girls in
- (a) A school in Enugu
 - (b) A school in Umuahia.
23. What are considered to be the particular educational functions of Home Economics in the secondary school? (15)
- Give reasons for your answer and suitable illustrations where necessary. (10) (25)
24. What information would you require and what factors would influence you when preparing a programme for teaching Home Economics in a secondary school in any community? (15)
- Give reasons for your answer. (10) (25)

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

25. (a) Define and explain several types of motivators. (10)
- (b) Explain three types of teacher control prevalent in a health and physical education classroom. (15 marks)

EITHER

26. What are the main factors affecting teaching methods in the field of health education. (10)
- Describe with illustrations the remedies you will use to improve these factors. (15)
- OR (a) What are the fundamental principles of learning? (10)
- (b) How could some of these fundamental principles of learning you have mentioned help to make students more interested in participating in health and physical education activities. (15)

Education Paper II

MATHEMATICS

27. A section of the modern mathematics syllabus for school certificate examination, states:

"Numbers: prime, composite, rational."

Discuss the 19th century contributions to the theory of numbers, mentioning in particular the contributions of Dirichlet and Cantor to the theory of irrational numbers.

In what ways would you utilize these contributions in the introduction of a first lesson on Numbers?

28. You are required to arrange a six-day seminar on the teaching of modern mathematics in primary schools in your locality. What topic would you consider essential for this seminar?

What visual aid materials would you prepare for the teaching of modern mathematics in primary schools through seminars?

PHYSICS

29. "The Primary Cell" is a subject in the school physics syllabus.

Write note of lesson on the teaching of this subject giving details of construction, mode of operation and defects.

It is often given that $g = 9.8 \text{ ms}^{-2}$

Discuss the meaning of "g" and point out factors affecting its value at points above and on the earth's surface.

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